EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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EXCERPTS FROM THE ANNUAL MEETING OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

THE COMMENTS presented in this section of the *School Review* are based on selected topics in secondary education discussed at the thirty-sixth annual convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals held in Cincinnati, Ohio, on February 16–20, 1952. The theme of the convention was "Better Citizens through Better Schools."

The program committee recognized that the secondary schools of the nation face many critical issues created by (1) rapid growth in enrolments, (2) social and economic changes, (3) unmet needs for buildings and personnel, and (4) unsolved problems of curriculum and instruction. To these critical issues and to many other current and impending problems in administration the convention directed its attention in general sessions during the forenoons and in discussion groups in the afternoons. A registration of approximately twenty-five hundred members established an all-time high in attendance record.

The lack of school holding power　　A nation-wide mortality rate of approximately 50 per cent in enrolments is regarded as probably the most serious issue confronting the secondary schools today. Since lack of holding power appears to be a serious matter in the large majority of secondary schools, it is essential to consider why high-school students are leaving school prior to graduation. The reasons most frequently given for withdrawing are: preferred work to school; not interested in school work; discouraged because of inability to learn; failing and did not want to repeat grade; dislike of a teacher; dislike of a subject; the belief that more could be learned out of school than in school; money needed to buy clothes and help at home; desire for spending money;

inability to meet school assessments and charges; lack of interest in school on the part of parents; influence of friends; and ill health.

Superintendent Herold C. Hunt of Chicago, in the opening address to the convention, mentioned drop-outs as the first critical issue in secondary education. He held that many of the hurdles to successful high-school adjustment are surmountable and that the situation will be remedied when high-school staffs come to know students as individuals, obtain their confidence, provide educational programs wherein students can achieve, give grade repeaters something new, show a relationship between education and life, provide occupational information, provide social experiences, give students a feeling of security, recognize signs of trouble, afford personal recognition, provide for the above-average student, develop a good record system, make efficient and effective use of records, help students select right courses, begin counseling early, obtain parent interest and co-operation, and receive public support.

While recognizing that this is a "big order," Dr. Hunt believes that, if school leaders are sincere in their belief in the importance of a high-school education and recognize it to be a minimal education experience necessary today, then everything possible must be done to attain it.

During the last thirty years the holding power of secondary schools has increased from around 25 to the present figure of 50 per cent. Further increase is necessary if the high school is adequately to provide general education for our future citizens. Perhaps a holding power of not less than 90 per cent is attainable for many, if not all, secondary schools.

The school principal must assume leadership in increasing holding power. Five responsibilities for principals were proposed by Ernest F. Weinrich, assistant superintendent of schools at Schenectady, New York:

The principal's first responsibility is to develop within himself and his staff the sincere conviction that high schools should increase their holding power. Unless this conviction guides the school staff, the high school will continue to function as a selective sieve in which the legal school-leaving age determines the size of the hole through which the drop-out falls.

The principal's second responsibility is to think through with his faculty how the problem of drop-outs can be met. The principal is not the only source of ideas, and he needs the co-operation of his staff to make ideas effective.

A third responsibility is to demonstrate his creativeness and his willingness to adapt school organization to meet curriculum needs. He must put first things first, recognizing that organization is justified only in so far as it improves instruction.

The principal's fourth responsibility is to see that something is done. It is to the principal that we look for educational leadership in a school. He must accept responsibility for increasing holding power, and he deserves recognition for the results achieved.

A fifth responsibility is to provide careful evaluation. Change does not necessarily mean improvement. The principal needs to justify the changes made by evidence that these changes have helped to meet the problem. Plans for change and plans for evaluation need to be made together. Lack

of adequate evaluation can abruptly halt potentially important curriculum adjustments.

Preparation Federal and state inter-
of citizens est in public education
rests on the belief that
the perpetuation of democratic government depends on the preparation of youth for citizenship. Few people would question this generalization. However, many realize that our rapidly changing world renders increasingly difficult the task of the school in preparing youth for the responsibilities of citizenship.

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, in its statement on the "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age," (*Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. XXXI [March, 1947]), holds:

All youth need to understand the rights and duties of a citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation, and of the world.

This belief commits the secondary school to a definite program for the preparation of youth for worthy citizenship.

Six characteristics of such a program were set forth by T. H. Mayer, assistant director of the Department of Child Study and Student Counseling, of the Columbus (Ohio) public schools:

1. A good citizenship program should provide an opportunity for boys and girls to learn the essential facts, skills, and behaviors necessary for the intelligent understanding of, and active participation in, our democratic society.

2. Citizenship education should be a continuing, dynamic function of the total school. It should be more than a course of study and should certainly not be confined to a unit, or a single subject-matter area.

3. A good citizenship-education program should provide opportunities for co-operative experiences and group action. It should provide training for enlightened leadership and intelligent followership.

4. A citizenship program should reach all of the pupils in all the schools and should take into account the fact that only about half of the future adult citizens reach the upper high-school grades.

5. Practice in citizenship activities—and a good program should provide opportunity for action—should be vital and realistic. What the youngsters *do* should count and should be recognized by them as being important.

6. The program should take the boys and girls beyond the confines of the classroom and the school and into the community, which is the proving ground of effective citizenship education.

A report was given of how the student leaders in the high schools of Columbus had enlisted the support and co-operation of the young people of the school system in a sane observance of Halloween, which resulted in virtually complete elimination of destructive practices. It was recognized, of course, that an anti-vandalism program, or a student court, or a scrap-iron drive, or a clean-up campaign, or a combination of all these by students does not, in itself, constitute an adequate citizenship program. We need also instruction in civics, history, problems of democracy, or common-

learnings courses by teachers who understand their responsibilities for the preparation of citizens. But instruction without opportunities for our future citizens to put into practice, in real situations, the things fundamental to active citizenship, is also inadequate. An effective program of preparation for citizenship requires opportunities of both types.

Our moral and spiritual values The brochure on *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools*, published by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, has stimulated much discussion among principals and teachers of secondary schools. From the discussion of the topic at the meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, it was determined that no abstract conception of the terms "moral" and "spiritual" would suffice. The definition of the Policies Commission was that these values are those which, when applied in human behavior, exalt and refine life and bring it into accord with the standards of conduct that we approve in our democratic culture. More specifically, moral values are conceived as those having consequences chiefly in social relationships; spiritual values, as those which take effect mainly in terms of inner emotions and sentiments.

The distinction here set forth is not necessarily dichotomous, said Henry C. Jensen, principal of the high school at Greeley, Colorado, who discussed moral and spiritual values in the secondary-school curriculum. He pointed out that the individual's social relationships play a vital role in shaping inner emotions and sentiments and that a person's inner feelings, in turn, affect an individual's dealings with his fellows.

It would probably not be difficult to prepare a list of moral and spiritual values which, most school men would agree, should be sought for the student in secondary education. However, the list of values of the Educational Policies Commission are as satisfactory as any that could be devised. These values are as follows: human personality—the basic value; moral responsibility; institutions as the servants of men; common consent; devotion to truth; respect for excellence; moral equality; brotherhood; the pursuit of happiness; and spiritual enrichment.

The need and desirability of teaching moral and spiritual values in secondary schools are apparent. Teaching these values in such a way that they become living realities in the lives of boys and girls rather than meaningless abstractions is a very different matter. Here, again, the suggestions of the Educational Policies Commission as to lines of attack may prove valuable:

1. Moral and spiritual values should be stated as aims of the school.

2. Initiative by individual teachers should be encouraged.

3. The education of teachers should deal with moral and spiritual values.

4. The teaching of values should permeate the entire educational process.

5. All the school's resources should be used to teach moral and spiritual values.

6. Public schools need staff and facilities for wholesome personal relations.

7. Public schools should be friendly toward the religious beliefs of their students.

8. Public schools should guard religious freedom and tolerance.

9. Public schools can and should teach *about* religion.

The public secondary school which can put these suggestions into effective practice would be meeting most commendably its obligation to teach moral and spiritual values.

Work ex-   A sectional meeting of
perience   the convention was devoted to the relation of work experience to classroom instruction. It was agreed that work experience as a medium of informal and casual education has great value, but that, as soon as efforts are made to provide for it in the school program, many questions of values arise. Some educators contend that, if work experience has educational value, school credit should be given for such learning experience just as credit is granted for achievement in other parts of the curriculum long recognized as legitimate. Others, while not disputing the value of work experience, maintain that our credit system has gone as far as it should go and that no further extensions should be encouraged or allowed. Those who hold the non-credit view believe that work experience as desirable education can be made to function effectively from the point of view of both students and faculty without subjecting it to the rigors of academic bookkeeping.

The one legitimate exception to the position stated occurs when work experience in which a student engages as part of a plan of study is of such a character as to prohibit him from taking one or more credit courses in his program of study. In such instances, successful work experience might be given credit and accepted as a substitute for the course or courses which the student found it necessary to omit.

Considerable research has been carried on to establish the value of work experience in education. The results have encouraged those engaged in secondary education to regard legitimate work experience as possessing both intrinsic and extrinsic values of great worth to students in the adolescent period.

Better Schools, the bulletin published by the Cincinnati public school system, reports the results of an experimental work-experience program organized in the fall of 1950 in the West Night High School of that city. The students studied advanced business courses in the evening and were employed in related occupations during the day.

Throughout the year a counselor-coordinator consulted with each about his work, aspirations, and immediate occupational needs. Every employer was visited repeatedly for his views about the student's needs, both occupational and personal, and the school used all its resources to meet these needs. Help was given in such diverse areas as spelling, dress, interpersonal relations, budgeting, and work attitudes.

Employers were asked at both the begin-

ning and close of the year to rate the students. Those who had made satisfactory progress were given one credit toward graduation in recognition of the fact that their participation in the program had contributed to their general educational development.

At the close of the year students answered, anonymously, a questionnaire designed to secure their opinions about the program. Thirty-nine per cent reported "the program has been most helpful to me." Forty-four per cent said "the program has been somewhat helpful to me, even beyond the credit given." The remainder wrote favorable comments, and no one chose any of three possible unfavorable comments.

Seventy-eight per cent of the students thought the counselor's advice was particularly helpful; 72 per cent stated that the program had made them more conscious of how they were "getting along" at work; 67 per cent felt that the program had made a favorable impression on their supervisors; and 39 per cent replied, "the program made me feel more secure and at home in my job." Remainders for each of these items were neutral: e.g., no one checked that the counselor's advice was not sound, or that the program had made an unfavorable impression on his supervisor. . . .

No questionnaire was sent to employers. However, they seemed to the counselor-co-ordinator to be equally appreciative of the program. Said one, of the student in his employ, "He has improved tremendously. We were going to fire him; now we're going to promote him. It must have been something you folks have done for him, because he's been here two years and the only improvement he's made has been in the last few months since I first saw you, his counselor."

Problem of Reports from large cities
narcotics indicate the spread of
drug addiction among high-school students. The narcotic evil has also invaded suburban areas, smaller towns and cities, and even rural districts. Although the largest number of victims is usually found in localities of the greatest economic want, yet many young people of normal intelligence and from socially well-adjusted families have been inveigled into the vicious trap.

The process by which the drug habit is acquired was reported as follows by Gabriel R. Mason, principal of the Abraham Lincoln High School, Brooklyn, New York:

Our youngsters usually begin with marijuana, an intoxicating weed with pungent fumes and aphrodisiac effects, and soon graduate to using heroin. In less than two months they are full-fledged addicts. Many of these teen-agers have confessed that they started to smoke marijuana, or reefers, through the persuasion of a friend, or a dare from the gang. It seemed the "sharp" thing to do. "Here, take a drag," says a pal, "and you'll get a thrill. . . ." Later, as one young fellow explained to a reporter, "When you try it, you feel peppy, you want to dance. When you walk you really got that nine-foot glide. And it's good to listen to music, when you've been smoking reefers."

Soon he learns of bigger kicks. On the street corners, in the local candy store, or in a dance hall, a friend will induce him to sniff heroin or "horse" sprinkled on his thumbnail. The friend may say to him, "Here, try this. It will give you a real bang. It's way better than marijuana." Not wanting to miss anything, and knowing that "everybody" in the neighborhood is using it, and also hating to be called "chicken," he consents. He accepts a few of the proffered capsules of this devastating and enslaving heroin. Most likely these were obtained by the donor as free samples from a peddler who is looking for new customers. Though to begin with, it may make him

vomit, yet it doesn't take long to get the real charge, "when all his mental processes dissolve into a warm glow of well-being. Frustration, worries, and physical disabilities gently evaporate." A "pop of horse" is their escape from the tensions of the times and their particularly uninviting environment into an infinitely pleasurable dream world. While living in a world of fantasy and daydreams, the victim never listens to advice. He feels like a "big shot" who can do anything. With illusions of grandeur, he is confident that nothing will happen to him; that he can quit any time he wants; and that he will never become a bum like those frequently seen around the neighborhood.

Alas, how dismally mistaken the youngster is! He finds himself "hooked"; he can't resist the temptation. In order to obtain the desired effect, he discovers it is necessary first to increase the dose; then as his nose gets sore from sniffing to go in for "skin-popping," that is, injecting the solution under his skin with a hypodermic syringe; and finally to resort to "main-lining" by injecting it intravenously. . . .

Though arms and legs become covered with ugly scars and infected sores from these amateur injections, usually made with a home-made and contaminated syringe, and though the cost of obtaining sufficient quantities of heroin runs high at a dollar a capsule (about five to ten dollars a day), he cannot stop for two reasons: his will-power has been weakened by the constant use of drugs, and his fears of withdrawal illness truly frighten and paralyze him. He has learned from his associates that those who stop taking drugs suffer excruciating pains in the legs, back, and abdomen, in addition to muscle-twitching, diarrhea, and fever. . . .

It is not surprising that, with no moral stamina to fortify them and with these nightmarish fears to haunt them, they decide to continue their vile habit. However, their financial situation now leads them into a new field—that of crime. To get the necessary money to purchase drugs, they begin to steal and take part in shoplifting, housebreaking, and holdups. Girls turn to prostitution. Worst of all, addicts of both sexes start the chain reaction—a fiendish type of pyramiding, by becoming agents, or small-time pushers for dope peddlers. By enticing new victims, they get their own allotment of capsules free, on a commission basis.

Unless this addict goes to a hospital for treatment, he will continue to be physically dependent on drugs. Though the human body builds up a tolerance to drugs so effectively that he continually needs larger and larger doses, and though he no longer enjoys a "kick" from the shots, he cannot stop. Actually, he finds himself abnormally sleepy and only half-alive; but when he tries to discontinue doping himself, his body is tormented by hideous pains, and his mind is assailed by morbid fears.

By this time, he most likely has lost all interest in school work, sports, and girls, for sexual instincts have been deadened, if he hasn't already become impotent. If employed, he soon finds himself discharged because of the poor performance of his duties. Progressively he becomes emaciated, uncommunicative, cranky, deceitful, dishonest, and most likely criminal, in his half-crazed compulsory desire to get drugs and to keep his much-needed, ever-increasing supply open. And thus this human pincushion trades transient and superficial pleasures for a life of hellish agony.

While the problem of the importation, sale, and distribution of narcotics is a primary responsibility of society, the prevention of the drug habit among the youth of secondary-school age and the cure of those who have formed the habit is, in part, the responsibility of the school. Through instruction and the identification of drug-users, a direct educational attack on the problem can be made.

Standards *for athletics*   The control of high-school athletics is vested in a Joint Committee on Standards for Athletics consisting of twenty-one members: seven from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals; seven from the American Association for Health, Physical Education and Recreation; and seven from the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations. The credo of this committee is that athletics is an integral part of secondary education, deserving of adequate financial support from tax funds. Athletic contests must be conducted under the direction of competent and accredited teachers, who are responsible for inculcating the principles of good citizenship and sportsmanship. Contests must be held under rules which protect the health, safety, and best interests of students while providing maximum participation. Stated conversely, the joint committee is opposed to commercialism, professionalism, exploitation, and the promotion of athletics for publicity or profit.

The high-school administrators, through their control and strict regulation of athletics, have averted situations such as have developed in college athletics. The present standards in the high schools have been achieved largely through the following program.

1. Protective equipment has been required by the rules committee of each sport. A very good example in football is the rule requiring all players to wear a helmet. A few years back, the most aggressive players did not wear the helmet, which at best did not lend much protection. The old helmets were not much better than skull caps. Today they give real protection, and rules require all players to wear them. . . .

2. Physical examinations of all participants is a regulation in most states. This is a real safeguard that is not only a protection for the participant but is real protection for the administrator and coach.

3. The requirement of a minimum of two or more weeks' practice before a contest is also a regulation in most states. This longer practice period assures good physical condition which cuts down on the possibility of injury. Prior to this regulation there were many teams assembled and placed into competition with very little conditioning. This resulted in a high casualty rate.

4. The required warm-up period before each half of a game has tended to cut down on the injuries in the early part of each half of a football game.

5. A limit on the number of games in which a team and an individual may participate has proved to be a very fine safeguard.

6. Equalizing competition has probably been the best safety measure. The lowering of the upper age limit has been the most effective measure toward equalizing competition. Participants of equal age and physical conditions can hardly injure each other. The elimination of the over-aged boys has made it safe for the normal teen-agers who make up the normal high-school student body.

Separate consideration of standards for girls' athletics has met with general acceptance in most parts of the country. These standards can be briefly summarized as follows:

1. Recognize individual differences; age, physique, interests, ability, experience, health, and maturity of girls. Provide in-

struction, coaching, and officiating by qualified women.

2. Provide for equitable competition between girls of approximately the same ability and maturity.

3. Offer opportunity for participation of every girl in a variety of activities.

4. Require a physical examination for every girl before participation and provide a healthful, safe, and sanitary environment for activities.

5. Limit the length of sports seasons and the maximum number of practice periods and games, with all games played according to girls' rules.

6. Stress intramural events and limit extramural competition to a small geographic area, separate from boys' contests, with safe transportation provided, and include informal social events after extramural games.

Poor read-   It is a well-known fact
ers in   that a surprisingly large
high school   fraction of the students
in secondary schools are deficient in many basic aspects of reading and are unable to prepare their class assignments effectively. Because of this, they become frustrated and withdraw from school unless something is done to aid them in overcoming their reading deficiencies. The teachers of such students are not infrequently baffled by the problems presented and are unable to contribute constructively to their solution.

William S. Gray, professor emeritus of education, University of Chicago, advised that the efficiency of many poor readers in the high school can be significantly increased. The extent of improvement will, of course, vary

widely among individual pupils and in accordance with the remedial treatment provided. Naturally, the results depend somewhat on the capacities of the poor readers as well as on the competency of those undertaking to provide the assistance needed.

The essentials of a sound reading program for students involve eight essentials recommended by the Committee on Reading of the National Society for the Study of Education in its Forty-seventh Yearbook, Part II, entitled *Reading in the High School and College* (distributed by the University of Chicago Press). These are summarized below:

1. *Careful appraisals of the reading attainments and needs of students at the time of admission.* The facts secured are needed by administrators in identifying the types of readers who enrol and in developing curriculums of appropriate breadth and variety, by counselors in advising pupils concerning their programs, by librarians in selecting reading materials of appropriate variety and range in difficulty.

2. *Instruction in the basic attitudes and skills common to mature types of readers.* By assigning responsibility for their development to a specific department, such as English, great economy can be effected in promoting desirable types of growth. Training should begin at a student's present level of attainment and broaden in harmony with the increasing demands made upon him.

3. *Special types of training . . . for the needlessly retarded reader, the handicapped reader, and the poor reader of limited capacity to learn.* It should be given under the direction of a teacher who is well qualified, not only in diagnosis and remediation, but also in basic instruction in reading at both the elementary- and high-school levels.

4. *Provision of conditions favorable for effective learning in all curriculum fields.* These involve a rich, provocative classroom environment, challenging purposes for study, a meaningful background of related experience, the co-ordinated use of reading and other aids to learning, and reading materials that vary widely in nature and difficulty. . . .

5. *Skilful guidance of reading activities in each subject taught.* In this connection, teachers should build upon, maintain, and further refine the basic reading competencies. . . . They should also assume full responsibility for developing the specialized reading skills required in their respective fields. Increasing competence in reading is thus conceived as an essential part of the total pattern of development sought by teachers of given subjects.

6. *Stimulation and guidance of the personal reading of pupils.* Unfortunately, the present reading interests and tastes of adolescents leave much to be desired. As a result of the strong appeal which movies, radio, and television make, the importance of cultivating keen interest in reading has increased rapidly during recent years.

7. *Adequate library facilities organized and administered so that the reading needs of pupils can be served at the various times and places where reading functions to greatest advantage.*

8. *Continuous appraisal of the effectiveness of the program and the teaching procedures used.* Of special importance are those evaluation techniques that can be used by teachers in determining how well they have secured desirable types of development in and through reading among their pupils.

Dr. Gray maintained that the provision of a sound reading program is one of the most urgent problems faced by secondary schools as they attempt to serve with effectiveness the increasing number of youth who enrol. Such a program should provide needed help, not only for poor readers, but also for the average and superior readers, in order that all may achieve in proportion to their capacity. The goals desired can be attained only through vigorous support and leadership on the part of all administrative officers.

PART-TIME JOBS INCREASING

PART-TIME EMPLOYMENT for teenage boys and girls after school and on Saturdays is at the highest point that it has ever reached in the United States, and it is likely to increase still more unless present conditions change decidedly. Federal census estimates early this year showed that at least a third of all young people between the ages of fourteen and seventeen have some income of their own. It is estimated that the average income of this group is around $200 a year.

The December, 1951, issue of *Financial Security Topics for Teachers*, issued by the Institute of Life Insurance for the Committee on Family Financial Security Education (488 Madison Avenue, New York 22), tells of a survey of the Senior class of the Bloomfield (New Jersey) Senior High School made last summer by the principal, Harry M. Rice. Of 154 students from whom questionnaire data were received, only one boy and five girls reported that they had not had any jobs during the summer vacation. All the others were either working at the time the questionnaire was filled out or had earned money during the summer months. The wages received for

after-school and Saturday jobs averaged $17 per week for boys and $9.50 a week for girls.

Further investigation of the employment of high-school students in Bloomfield and elsewhere reveals that these youngsters are not making good use of the money earned. Their money is expended mostly as the individuals please, going largely for "dates," school expenses, clothes, lunches, and, in many cases, for the cost of running automobiles. Saving is a minor item in the money programs of most high-school boys and girls, although an occasional student reported that he had put away money for college or some other specific project. Only a few students seemed to recognize any relation at all between the money they earned and the income of their families.

As the Committee on Family Financial Security of the Institute of Life Insurance points out, the spending of the money earned by students should be a responsibility, not only of themselves, but of their families. This can be accomplished through family planning, as in the following case reported by a teacher:

Joan, a Junior and a member of the Homemaking I class, comes from a miner's family of nine. The home was one characterized by debt, discord, and discouragement. Summer employment and the kindness of a neighbor had given Joan a glimpse of what a "nice home" could be.

Somehow, even she cannot tell just how, Joan gained the consent of her parents to see if she could do something about the money situation. She studied all she could find about family budgets and finally selected "A Discussion of Family Money" published by the Institute of Life Insurance, to take home and discuss with her family. The following week Joan came to school with all the necessary data to make out her budget. The first draft was surprisingly successful and, still more surprisingly, accepted by the entire family. (She included a personal allowance, based on needs, for each member of the family.)

Joan's mother turned the handling of the clothing money and a part of the household expense money over to her. The budget has been revised a couple of times; and now that the debt is being systematically reduced and last winter's fuel bill taken care of, another revision is imminent. This one is to be based on accounts carefully kept by Joan and shown to the others.

Not the least valuable outcome of this project is the improvement in family relationships. Joan says, "Sometimes we all sit down and try to figure what we need most for our money, instead of all grabbing some and rushing out to spend it as fast as we can. We are getting better acquainted with each other that way, and like each other better, too. I let my sister wear some of my clothes now."

Joan herself has improved immensely in appearance and gained in popularity.

Report Cards

WHILE THE MEETING of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was in session, the newspapers of Cincinnati were carrying on a discussion with the central school administration about changes in the methods of reporting pupil progress to parents. Lyle M. Spencer, the director of Science Research Associates, says in a recent issue of the *Junior Guidance Newsletter* that teach-

ers, parents, and students usually agree about report cards: "All three agree (but for different reasons) that our present reporting system makes little sense, that the proverbial 'link between home and school' is appallingly weak and rusty."

Four main defects in existing reporting systems stand out:

(1) Few schools really know what purposes they want their cards to serve. (2) Few schools are sure of what they want to evaluate—and report. (3) Few schools have decided what basis of comparison to use in giving marks. (4) Our marking systems are notoriously unreliable.

Aware of these defects in reporting methods, schools have tried many schemes. Out of the experiments have come [five] suggestions:

1. *Set up a co-operative parent-teacher committee to improve your present report form.* The result of this committee's work should be not only a new card, but a clear explanation for parents and pupils of the purposes and meaning of the card, and how marks are arrived at. The main problems this committee will need to deal with are:

a) What should be the purposes of the card? . . .

b) What are the educational objectives that need to be evaluated? . . .

c) With whom—or what—do we want to compare pupils? . . .

d) What marking system should be used? . . .

2. *Encourage teachers to develop ways of making their marks more reliable and uniform.* Grades will be most reliable if based on standardized achievement tests. Such tests, however, are seldom given more than once a year. In the interim, a school-wide committee to help teachers improve marking procedures will make policies more uniform.

3. *Provide space on the report card for both teacher and parent comments.* Supple-

mentary information often helps parents understand their child's progress better, and frequently, parents like a chance to comment on the report. One school report has a box parents can check if they want a personal conference with the teacher.

4. *Don't confine reports to report cards.* Informal letters to parents are an excellent means of keeping them informed of their children's progress—between report cards. This is especially important when achievement is poor and there is a possibility of failing the child. But it is also effective when a pupil has done particularly well.

Personal conferences should also be used to supplement cards. Chicago public schools stage a parent-interview day once each semester, before any written reports go out. The parent conference method makes it possible to interpret grades to parents and suggest ways that they can help their children. Report verbally to pupils, too. A personal conference will help them understand much better how they have done. When students are mature enough, some schools even let them share in preparing reports.

5. *See that report cards as well as supplementary reports "accentuate the positive."* Avoid the use of negative words, discouraging comments, or a complaining tone. The purpose is to *encourage* parents and pupils, not to alienate them. Include positive suggestions that parents can follow to help their child, and tell them what the school plans to do, too.

MANPOWER SHORTAGE IN ENGINEERING AND SCIENTIFIC FIELDS

AT CONFERENCES called by the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation and the United States Office of Education, attention has been directed to the critical shortage of engineering and scientific manpower and the dependence of Western civilization on American industry. A report on the confer-

ence held in Cincinnati has appeared in the public schools' bulletin, *Better Schools:*

The supply of scientific and engineering graduates in 1951 was less than half of those needed. The number of scientifically trained graduates will steadily decrease until 1954, and at the same time the demands of essential civilian and defense programs will doubtless continue to increase.

It was recommended that to meet this challenge educational institutions develop counseling programs which will result in a larger number of men and women being trained in these fields. Students with aptitudes in science, it was recommended, should be shown that by obtaining scientific and technical training they can prepare themselves for satisfying employment and also make a major contribution to the preservation of our way of life.

Information of value in counseling with students contemplating preparation for engineering was reported by Frank S. Endicott, director of placement at Northwestern University, before the Superintendents' Study Club of the Chicago Metropolitan Area. He sent survey forms to companies employing inexperienced graduates of engineering schools. Each company was requested to select an average man employed from the graduating class of 1947 and report the status of this man four years later.

Sixty-seven companies reported that the range in the starting salaries was $160 to $300 per month, the average monthly salary being $244. Four years later the range in salaries was $350 to $560, and the average $430.

Other information on the salaries of American men of science has been recently published by the United States Department of Labor in cooperation with the Department of Defense, obviously with the aim of interesting college and university students in entering scientific fields in which the shortage of manpower exists.

The published data of the United States Department of Labor were collected from the 1949 biographical directory of *American Men of Science* for 42,000 of the 50,000 scientists listed. For men with Ph.D. degrees engaged in private industry, the median salary was $7,070 a year. For those engaged in services of government, the median salary was $6,280 a year, and for those engaged in education, the median salary was only $4,860 a year.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

Who's Who for April

Authors of news notes and articles   The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. EARL S. JOHNSON, associate professor of social sciences at the University of Chicago, considers the implications that such social developments as changes in outlook involved in moving from a small family group to the larger society and the social-class biases affecting an individual's outlook have for his social education and for the social-studies teacher in defining the social-class structure. GRAYCE A. FOLEY, teacher of English and speech at Barringer High School, Newark, New Jersey, describes how student committees are organized in her English classes to set up class objectives and procedures and explains the advantages gained in terms of student-directed learning. CHARLES L. MAURER, dean emeritus of the College of South Jersey, Rutgers University, Camden, New Jersey, now co-ordinator of veterans' education at Temple University High School, describes the accelerated program at Temple University High School that enables older students to complete high school and analyzes reasons for the superior achievements of students in this program. CAROLYN CALLIS DUNLAP, teacher of English at Fort Hill High School, Cumberland, Maryland, describes a method that she devised for keeping a cumulative record of sociometric data gathered from pupils in her classroom. JOHN L. HAER and HOWARD S. SWANSON, both research assistants at the Washington Public Opinion Laboratory of the State College of Washington, compare six educational groups on selected indices of material wealth and of cultural values and find significant differences between the groups in possession of material symbols but little difference in cultural qualities. ROLAND F. GRAY, supervisor of elementary education at Dexter Agricultural Schools, Dexter, Michigan, and HOWARD S. BRETSCH, assistant professor of education at the University of California at Berkeley, compare the guidance services performed by schools having formal guidance programs with those provided by schools not having formal programs. CLAYTON M. GJERDE, assistant professor of education at San Diego State College, and MARVIN D. ALCORN, associate professor of education at the same institution, present a list of selected references on the extra-curriculum.

Reviewers of books   T. D. RICE, professor of education, New York University. PAUL B. DIEDERICH, research associate at the Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. JOSEPH K. McLAUGHLIN, director, Department of Aeronautics, State of Illinois, Springfield, Illinois. J. E. STONECIPHER, director of secondary education at the Des Moines public schools, Des Moines, Iowa. EDNA LUE FURNESS, associate professor of education at the University of Wyoming.

SOCIAL CLASS AS FACT AND PERSPECTIVE IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES

EARL S. JOHNSON
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SOCIAL EDUCATION consists in the student's coming to know himself in the only context in which self-knowledge is possible: the society of his fellow-men, his adult as well as his age-peer contemporaries. This is to say that the pre-eminent obligation of the social studies is to facilitate the student's socialization and acquaint him with its nature as a social process, to the end that he may learn to take a self-conscious part in it and thus come to know what manner of man he is.

The process of socialization is the process of growing up, of becoming a mature self, aware of the nature of one's status among his fellows and conscious of the roles he plays opposite them. In this process the individual makes an uneasy, troubled, and uncertain journey from the status of *child* to that of *political man*. The uneasiest, most troubled, and least certain section of this journey is the period of adolescence.

In this period youth, everywhere in the Western world, seeks greater intellectual and emotional independence. This search takes the form of emancipation from family controls and increasing identification with the first extra-familial political associa-tions: the gang, the Scout troop, the school class—in short, all the institutional aspects of adolescent peer-group life. These have a political character, in contradistinction to the family, in the sense that in them the adolescent not only initiates action but helps formulate the policies to guide the action, and both of these opportunities involve him in the discipline of discussion about ends and means. These opportunities the family seldom affords; when, perchance, it does, the discussion and the action remain under the constraining aegis of parental authority.

ADOLESCENTS' TRANSITION FROM "WHO" TO "WHAT"

In order to follow the analysis which I now undertake, I ask you to examine the diagram below, which presents a straight-line continuum, the left and right poles of which are the ideal-type social situations named *family* and *public*, respectively. Their correlation with the ideal-type human stages of childhood and adulthood is obvious.[1] The *family* is a "who situation" and the *public* a "what situa-

[1] Ideal types are ideal only in the logical sense. No historical case satisfies their conditions.

tion." "Who" and "what" symbolize contrasting norms for judging the value of persons.

The terms "who situation" and "what situation" are, however, too general for the heuristic purpose I have in mind, and so we set up two parallel columns under the poles of *family* (the "who situation") and *public* (the "what situation").[2] Under "Family-Who Situation," the following associated characteristics may be listed: sacred attitudes, noncompeti-

as a matter of course, from the inarticulate premise that a member of a family is to be judged in intrinsic terms. No matter how deviate one's morals may be as judged by other families, within his own he is good by definition. On the contrary, the question—and note that it is a question—"What can he produce?" is not a judgment, either before or after the facts. It is a question before the deed and, unlike its opposite, requires proof.

The ideal type of family-who situa-

FAMILY	PUBLIC
"Who Situation"	*"What Situation"*
Sacred attitudes	Secular attitudes
Noncompetitive processes	Competitive processes
Nonrational means	Rational means
Personal sentiments	Impersonal sentiments
Ascribed status	Achieved status
"He's my boy!"	"What can he produce?"

tive processes, nonrational means, personal sentiments, and ascribed status. Under "Public-What Situation," these contrasting characteristics may be listed: secular attitudes, competitive processes, rational means, impersonal sentiments, and achieved status.

The last indentures, "He's my boy!" and "What can he produce?" carry the burden of the moral of the schema. The statement, "He's my boy!" is both an affirmation and a judgment. Note that it is an affirmation and not a question. Moreover, it is a judgment before the facts, based on what are presumed to be the intrinsic merits of the person. It follows,

[2] I owe the symbols "who" and "what" as used here to James S. Plant, *Personality and the Cultural Pattern*, pp. 96 f. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1937.

tion is that in which the adolescent originates. In it he does not have to *make* good. He is categorically *defined* as good, at least in terms of the ingroup loyalty of his family. The ideal type of public-what situation is that toward which the adolescent moves, normally at a fairly rapid pace. Adolescence is thus something like a disease or a debt: one usually tries to recover from it or pay it off as quickly as possible—except those who, for whatever reason, fail to find the means to do so. What the adolescent lacks is knowledge of the standardized procedure by which he may gain emancipation from the family-who situation and come into full-member participation in the public-what situation. His problem is to adjust himself to the

norms of this more secular and rational body of experience.

In the family-who situation the child is offered a limited number of social roles or statuses. Furthermore, these are somewhat more thrust upon him than elected, chosen, or earned; that is, he tends to inherit them no matter what the social class to which his family belongs. In our society the human being begins his life with ascribed status whether it be high or low in prestige value. Effecting the integration of his social roles, since they are limited in number, presents the individual with a relatively simple problem. Moreover, the individual has that sense of security, of belonging, which he gets from both his family and its social-class position—a security which varies greatly among families and social-class levels. Of whatever quality, it is, like his ascribed status, something unearned; it is literally "built into" the child's family-who situation.

In the public-what situation the adolescent—now less child and more man by virtue of his moving toward that situation—confronts the probability of a greatly increased number of social roles. The task of effecting a stable integration of multiple roles in the public-what situation is very difficult. The characteristic of security which is given in the family-who situation is attained only by struggle in the public-what situation. In the latter situation security is succeeded, if not superseded, by the characteristic of adequacy. I suggest you now add

these two terms, "security" and "adequacy," to the foregoing schema. In a condition of security, as now defined, the adolescent is considered equal to a situation whether or not he is *really* equal to it. In a condition of adequacy he is equal to a situation only if he can prove that he is by actual achievement. Security, or a sense of belonging, is thus given in the former situation; adequacy, or a sense of superiority, must be earned in the latter situation.[8]

Unless the schema which I have presented informs practice in subject and curriculum organization, it can have little worth to the teacher of the social studies. I turn to its implications for use.

KINDS OF BIASES AFFECTING OUTLOOK

I choose to look upon the student's experience in the adolescent phase of the continuum of socialization in terms of the biases with which, as a human being, he is furnished. These biases are integral parts of his *self;* they are not adjuncts which, like automobile accessories, he may take or leave at his caprice or ability to pay. The adolescent often pays dearly for them. As biases, they are things

[8] Plant's observation that "insecurity and inadequacy . . . appear to be not a dichotomy but rather as the emphasized ends of a continuous series," helps clarify my use of the terms "security" and "adequacy" (James S. Plant, *op. cit.*, pp. 96–105).

See also James S. Plant, *The Envelope*, pp. 7–28 and 167–80. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1950.

which he takes for granted and, as such, are perhaps the most important things he may know about himself. His task is to become aware of them and to take account of their influence on his interests, choices, and judgments.

Important among his biases are these: *educational*—his tendency to look at social situations from a crude and uncorrected common-sense angle or from the more finished and sophisticated angle of social science; *nationalistic*—his patriotic orientation, his political or his party view if not sometimes his "party-line" views; and his *social-class* bias—the unexamined criteria by which he judges the superiority or inferiority of himself and his fellow-men.[4] Note that the adolescent's social-class bias[5] is only one among several, and not necessarily the most important. In my judgment, however, it is a much-neglected one.

[4] See Herbert Spencer, *The Study of Sociology*, pp. 178–313. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1894. I have not listed the theological bias, which is Spencer's fifth. It is even more dangerous to treat than the class bias.

[5] I offer no definition of "social class." It would, if offered, depend on the point of view of the definer or classifier. I assume that all so-called "advanced" societies have a differentiated structure; that these differentia may be properly called social classes; that they are arranged in horizontal "layers"; and that, whenever social intercourse is limited by virtue of these differentiated strata, status distinctions—appraisals of persons as of "higher" or "lower" prestige—obtain. I conceive a social-class order as a continuum which, for certain purposes, may be divided by drawing lines through it. Between these lines the social classes lie.

SUCCESS AND SOCIAL-CLASS BIASES

Among the many social values which are significantly affected by social-class bias I choose that of *success*. Throughout all the class orders of our society, success tends to be measured in terms, first, of one's competence and, second, in terms of one's worthiness. If the criterion of competence belongs to the syndrome of public-what and worthiness to that of family-who, it is evident that the adolescent's struggle to attain success will go on under rules of the game that are different in the secular society of the public from those applying in the sacred society of the family. Likewise, the rules differ within the various social-class orders.[6] Characteristically, the competitive principle, in which America puts such store, dominates the secular society—except when forbidden by the practice of monopoly. But the competitive principle conditions not only material success and failure but also spiritual success and failure. Adolescents ought to know these things.

The prevailing folklore, however, presents a different account of the conditions under which success is

[6] A conception of lower and middle class adolescent obligations and practices which suggests contrasting conceptions of success and how it is achieved may be found in Clyde and Florence Kluckhohn, "American Culture: Generalized Orientations and Class Patterns," *Conflicts of Power in Modern Culture*. Edited by Lyman Bryson, Louis Finkelstein, and R. M. MacIver. Seventh Symposium, Conference on Science, Philosophy and Religion. New York: Harper & Bros., 1948.

achieved. According to it, success is achieved, first, because one is worthy of it and, second, because one is competent—a reversal of the order which really obtains. Adolescents ought to know this.

Furthermore, the folklore says, success is achieved by virtue of only personal factors. The truth is, of course, that it is attained by virtue of various combinations of personal factors *and* appropriate social conditions. The folklore's accounting for *failure* runs according to the same general logic. In both cases the social conditions are, in significant measure, social-class conditions. Adolescents ought to know this.

Furthermore, the folklore says that those who are endowed "by nature" with the attributes of competence and worthiness succeed; those not so endowed, fail. But, again, the facts of life are not quite of that order; it appears that some succeed who do not possess these attributes and that some who do possess them fail. This appears to deny the belief that the good are rewarded by success and that the wicked are punished by failure. The nub of the problem is that the rules of ascribed status operate in the conditions of public-what although, according to the theory, the rules of achieved status ought to determine what success and failure are and to whom they come. Adolescents ought to be aware of these discrepancies.

Here it is necessary to point to a limitation in the ideal types presented.

I seem to have taken alarm at the fact that ascribed-status rules persist in public-what situations. But if they did not, the public-what stage would be ordered only on the competitive principle. The competitive principle is the one to which we are committed and to which we shall probably continue to hold. This principle gives the public-what its basic set of rules. But these must be modified, as indeed they are, by the family-who principle in order to insure that there may obtain between competence and worthiness that humane balance necessary for civilized social relations. This requires that success be judged in moral as well as in economic terms. Adolescents ought to know this.

Adolescents should know that genuine equality among men requires a minimum of security. But, historically, it has been a low minimum for many, with the result that equality has sometimes been more a word than a social condition. It is significant that all American adolescents who have reached their eighteenth year have lived their entire lives in a society in which the minimum of security has been steadily increasing. I refer to the guaranties of security which have their origin in the welfare provisions of both public and private agencies. Through such provisions as social security provided by the state and the many benefits secured through collective bargaining by trade unions, the floor of security has been raised for millions of our citizens. (But these

security provisions have been quite selective, as in the case of limited, if not nation-wide, provision for the fair employment of racial and religious minority groups.) Adolescents might well examine the charge that these advances in personal and group security constitute "vicious class legislation."

The extension of the principle of security into the zone where adequacy is the ideal-type criterion brings the danger of the belief that adequacy has served its day. Adolescents should learn that the former imbalance, in which too little weight was given to worthiness and too much to competence, may conceivably be followed by an imbalance in which too little weight is given to competence and too much to worthiness. At any rate, these are the complementary conditions in light of which the welfare provisions of both private and public agencies might well be assessed. Consideration of these imbalances would certainly induce a more sober, objective, and discriminating perspective on recent politico-economic changes than the irrational charge that the welfare state has imperiled the "American way of life" and that we are in the grip of a "creeping socialism." It is, however, possible to redefine "success" without breaking the thread that ties success to effort. But in a democracy adequate guaranties must be given in order that the *chance* to display effort be afforded.

It is not clear how the present American class structure has been affected by the improved balance of worthiness and competence, of securi-

ty and adequacy; of "who" and "what" climates; and of ascribed and achieved status. Its effect would, however, certainly be reflected in changes placed on the value of upward mobility.

Success has, traditionally, been measured in our society by one's upward mobility. We seem to have amended the Ten Commandments to read: "Thou shalt strive ever to move upward lest thou be guilty of an unforgivable sin." Such a view would appear to suggest that social-class organization is essentially hostile to freedom *but* that this hostility may be somehow reduced or escaped if one can move "ever upward" in the vertical scale. A truly democratic social order should, it seems to me, afford some options in the matter of rising or staying, should recognize relative rather than absolute differences in status.

The first of these options would be the freedom to rise from one class to another in the spirit of individual freedom as reflected in the standard of "careers open to talent." This freedom is for those of requisite capacity and ambition. If their capacity is truly superior, they may, without necessarily stepping on the faces of others, move upward in the class structure. But if ambition alone were the motivation, there is only the will and not the way—at least, not the humane way. But if ambition is paired with genuine competence, the margin of success should increase.

Upward mobility is an important freedom but no less so than another

kind. This is a freedom applying to individuals who have neither the wish nor the power to leave the social class in which circumstance has placed them. This freedom, no less than the first named, should mean justice, opportunity, and humane living. But in this case it is opportunity *not* to get out of a given social class position but rather *to be something in it*. This would, for example, be the chance for a plumber, a miner, a barber, or any member of the lower-status occupations to have comfort, culture, and good surroundings without ceasing to be plumber, miner, or barber.

In this context I am reminded of the fact that we often take little or no account of the difference between status and esteem. The fact that those who follow such occupations as those just noted can hardly expect to be considered equal in class status or prestige with their so-called "betters" in the "higher" professions ought not, it seems to me, lead them to believe that prestige parity is all there is to success. I should like to see teachers call attention to the high esteem in which persons pursuing the trades may be held if their performance warrants it.

THE SCHOOL'S OBLIGATION
TO STUDENTS

Now I do not believe that it is the school's obligation to allocate students in the class structure. But the school cannot afford to be insensitive to, or unconcerned about, either the fact of the student's class origin or his class aspirations. Rather than allocate students to their "proper" class position, the school's task is to provide both realistic and idealistic pictures of the student's life chances and of the statuses that go with them. If the school should arrogate to itself allocation of students in the class structure, or worse, undertake to determine what the final form of the society should be, it would cease to be an educational institution and become a political one. In that role it could only cajole or force students who were already class-identified to fit into that place in the social scheme which the school conceived to be "good for them." In its proper role as an educational agency, the school's task is to analyze the workings of the social processes by which human beings become identified in class terms and seek to bring the student honestly to assess his competence and life-chances as that analysis would reveal them to him.[7]

I should now like to pose some questions bearing on matters of status, success, and the like which teachers of the social studies might well ask themselves. I suggest that the "answers" might well be looked for jointly with their students.

1. What are the liabilities as well as the assets of the competitive principle as it

[7] For a diagnosis and prognosis of the obligation of the school with respect to the presumed excessive upward-mobility ambitions of American high-school students, see Robert J. Havighurst, "Education for Social Cohesion," *Education in a Democracy*, pp. 18–41. Edited by Newton Edwards. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941.

relates to the tendency for young people to engage in excessive status-striving?

2. To what degree have the market and technology set the norms for success and provided many of the symbols for it?

3. What politico-economic changes are necessary to create the climate in which less materialistic success symbols may arise and make a substantial appeal to young people?

4. Is it historically possible for today's youth to maintain as wide a margin of difference in success and status between their present and future as it was for their parents?

5. As our civilization matures and the older physical frontiers are closed, what new cultural frontiers offer promise for success and status?

6. If we continue to believe that success, through status-striving, is the measure of a man's goodness, how difficult do we dare to make its attainment, short of imposing failure on many who, if success were conceived in less rigorous terms, might not fail?

I believe that it is possible to sketch the conditions which would define success, conceived as that value which is expressed in the belief that "the world calls upon me because it seems unable to call on anyone else" and that the doing of the task will not necessarily bring fame or wealth. It is the quality of sentiment which the mother in *I Remember Mama* exemplified so poignantly. It is the quality of sentiment implicit in Emerson's belief that every man is made of "some triumphant superiority," although Emerson appears to have entertained a more transcendental view of the means by which this could be achieved than would satisfy a pragmatist.

Certain quite practical and attainable steps suggest themselves. I think it is possible to demonstrate through case-study and life-history materials that several levels of success in power, prestige, and esteem may be achieved at any social-class level. The student may be a failure at algebra, he may lack the social graces necessary to make him a good dancer, he may be too small to excel in athletics, but, "When it comes to chess, let 'em look out!" Signal success in a single realm may compensate for failure or low-grade success in several others. The problem is not adequately defined as one simply of "success or failure." Rather, it is one of evolving what Plant calls a "workable bundling of one's 'different personalities.' "[8] If, however, the task is undertaken with the notion that the resulting composite (the self) can be made up of success unalloyed by failure, high prestige bought at whatever cost in esteem, and striving which takes its goals from what others do rather than from an honest assessment of one's own competences, the result will most certainly be bungling rather than bundling.[9]

[8] See James S. Plant, *op. cit.*, p. 128.

[9] Count Tolstoi told us that the great personal question is: "What shall I do with my life?" I find little evidence that any part of the social studies is used to focus on that question in terms relative to the understanding of students with different abilities and life-chances. Certainly, teacher preachment is not legitimate social knowledge. The focus will not come until learning experiences are organized in terms of what I think of as "universal confrontations"—situations of judgment which all human beings face and for which they can, in varying degrees, be prepared.

It is possible to achieve far more than we now do in bringing students to know that they have standards for assessing their own successes and failures and those of others. There is considerable evidence that students are only dimly conscious of the fact that these are chiefly moral standards. In order to develop these insights, we must educate our students to be both actors and spectators. This will require that they develop the ability to see themselves in a critically objective way. They must develop the ability literally to put their aspirations, ambitions, and future plans "into rehearsal" and see "how the play ends." They must be able to play a whole series of imagined roles and judge the consequences, not in terms of the market canons of success, but in terms of their greater happiness and sanity as human personalities.[10]

IMPLICATIONS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES

The full implications of this analysis for the reform of the social-studies curriculum cannot be presented here. No great stretch of the imagination is re-

[10] See a provocative paper by Gustav Ichheiser, "Ideology of Success and the Dilemma of Education," *Ethics*, LIII (January, 1943), 137–41. The actor-spectator role has much in common with George H. Mead's theory of the dependence of the self on the ability to identify with the "generalized other." The following is appropriate: "One starts to say something, we will presume an unpleasant something, but when he starts to say it he realizes it is cruel. The effect on himself of what he is saying checks him; there is here a conversation of gestures between the individual and himself"—George H. Mead, *Mind, Self, and Society*, p. 141. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1948.

quired to see how the teaching of economics might take more account of Veblen's theory of "conspicuous consumption," of how the teaching of history might strike a somewhat more realistic balance between military heroes, political "big shots," business leaders, and those who stoke the furnaces, deliver the milk and the mail, meet the customers across the counter, and run the tabulating machines. The field trip into "a world aching with vividness" can effect an excellent balance between the student's "knowledge about," and his "acquaintance with," his society as a structure of social classes.

But despite improved insights and practices through the whole gamut of the social studies, the school operates within a set of limitations which must be recognized for what they are. The growth process from child to political man is a process of changing attitudes. For substantial and lasting change in attitudes two factors are necessary: the right *tendency* and the right *objective conditions*. The school can work only on the hearts and minds of its students; it cannot change the objective conditions—rebuild the class structure, rehabilitate the slum, or reorganize the police force. The school's task is, however, no mean one. It is that of giving youth "a living picture of the choice of thoughtful men about what they would have life be and to what ends they would have men shape their intelligent activities."[11]

[11] John Dewey, *Reconstruction in Philosophy*, p. 26. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1937.

In conclusion, I would indicate two cautions. First, the teacher of the social studies must not make the mistake of assuming, because youth can achieve something like a democratic commonwealth in the school and classroom, that the attitudes there engendered will persist in their full strength under the corrosive effects of the climate I have identified as "public-what." The school can do little more than set forth the possibility of a society in which, despite its differences of upper-, middle-, and lower-class statuses, one may be a man "for a' that." By dint of the work of students, full grown into political men, the social-studies teacher may contribute to the ordering of a class structure on a more equitable and humane design.

My second caution stems from this view. The problem we address as social-studies teachers is not that of doing away with social classes. Rather, it is that of insuring that our class system maintains and increases its open character and affords dignity and security at all its levels. Social classes and their role in our society do not constitute a social problem to be solved. They constitute, rather, the pieces or elements in a social process

called "democracy" which requires to be directed by more humane rules. If any people would undertake to do away with social classes, the surest thing we know is that they would spring up again. By the same token, the presumed withering-away of the state or the family or any of our basic social institutions would be not a withering-away but only a metamorphosis. It is both silly and futile to anticipate either a perfect synthesis of social classes or their disappearance. The doctrine of the "class struggle" as the be-all and end-all of social change is "weighted with the wish for eternal rest— for death."[12]

But we want life and not death, and the way to get it is to manage the social-class system so that an equilibrium may be maintained. This is an equilibrium between competing conceptions of both desirable ends and desirable means. Struggle, divergence —in short, difference—are the conditions of social peace. Only that teaching of the social studies which is beholden to such a view can prepare American youth to live in this century and make the next a better one.

[12] Frank Tannenbaum, "The Balance of Power in Society," *Political Science Quarterly*, LXI (December, 1946), 504.

GROUP WORK—GETTING TO KNOW IT BETTER

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INTRODUCTION

GROUP-TOGETHERNESS in working out plans and attaining and evaluating goals is perhaps the most striking mark of modern teaching practices. Through a consolidation of effort, ingenuity, and energy, teacher and pupils co-operate in each endeavor. Hence, the more or less accepted line of demarcation between the teacher's role and the pupils' part in classroom teaching and learning gives way to a common ground of understanding on objectives, procedures, plans, and evaluations, which is a genuine basis for worth-while learning and sound achievement.

Provision for group work—working in committees—is a common pedagogical means of developing such democratic ideals as sharing, co-operating, and undertaking the social obligations of group membership. It also develops a sense of belonging, which individuals gain in making group contributions. Even with the opportunities for student-directed learning that the committee or group method promises, teachers have failed to indorse these democratic procedures with unanimity. Part of their reluctance comes from uncertainty about how to carry on the group method. There is no one approach upon which *all* can rely for success in the use of the committee method. Rather, there is need for constant experimentation with group techniques, for vigilant observation of student reactions, and for discussion with them about their thoughts and suggestions.

This problem of uncertainty, while a unique challenge to some, remains a threat to the security that many teachers want to insure in the classroom. But to those teachers who have experienced achievement through committee work, no other teaching procedure offers quite such satisfying results. To illustrate, this writer describes below an experiment in committee work which produced worth-while activities and objectives in English classes.

ORGANIZING A COMMITTEE

The immediate problem in inaugurating committee methods with any class is knowing how and when to organize. Advice to the teacher about initiating group methods includes the following ideas:

1. Begin at once to be enthusiastic about the importance of developing attitudes of

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friendliness in class activities. Encourage the spirit of working together and sharing through group enterprises.

2. Don't set up strict rules and regulations for committee procedures. Make initial directions simple and uniform. A direction sheet distributed in the beginning to each pupil is useful. Above all, let the students develop and work out the ways and means to accomplish meaningful committee objectives. In this way, committee work provides real student experience in planning and carrying out ideas and activities.

3. Be alert in observing student weaknesses and strong points in their working together. Guide rather than direct, and make use of constructive criticism in order to encourage progress.

4. Think about the problems of each committee, and work along with pupils as a willing contributor and ready consultant.

5. Suggest topics and make recommendations which may help students to begin work and to outline their plans and procedures.

6. Emphasize and re-emphasize the real basis for committee work as evident in the harmony with which a committee works in sharing duties, compromising, and co-operating.

Bearing these "tips" in mind, the writer discussed with each class the significance of working in groups and introduced the official course of study in English for this particular term. Thus, at the very first class meeting, students were acquainted with the general areas of learning around which activities could be developed. In order to plot a course for each class, the first week's work was to be concerned with pupil views and plans for supplementing and modifying the course as it had been presented to them. Since their suggestions and opinions were stressed as the important impetus to a really suitable and enjoyable term of English study, a poll was taken on the following four topics:

1. What are your *interests*, hobbies, leisure activities?

2. What should be our *aims* for English study during this term?

3. What are your *ideas* for interesting class work, activities, and needed study?

4. What *rules and regulations* should be set up as a guide to teacher and pupils in regard to the various phases of classwork?

Each of these questions was reserved for discussion on a separate day. In preparation for each meeting, pupils were asked to list their suggestions and recommendations on paper. These lists were to be collected after a daily discussion of each topic, as a guaranty of a complete class poll of all opinions. Hence, the first week of the course was planned to get everyone interested in the classwork and to make each student realize the importance of his contributions.

Each of the four questions listed above was analyzed carefully before students were asked to make their independent list of answers at home. These three phases were raised in order to clarify each day's poll topic: (a) meaning of the topic and how it should be phrased in question form; (b) importance of answering Question 2 in helping to build a better course of study; and (c) suggestions on how to list answers by breaking down each topic into subtopics. For example, Topic 4, *Rules and regulations*, was broken down, through discussion, into such areas as homework, tardiness, ways of speaking in class, duties of class officers, and courtesy.

In writing answers to the four questions, the students studied indirectly and as concomitant learning some English fundamentals, such as agreeing on a suitable arrangement for written work—heading for each paper, use of ink, width of margins, suggestions on breaking down a main topic, and rules for outlining.

Besides using student papers to tally all opinions, students were taught to use their notes or outline as a basis for making oral contributions to each day's discussion in class. In order to keep the daily discussions on the four questions from becoming routinized, and at the same time to develop and strengthen student confidence and leadership in discussion, the following four methods were used on consecutive days:

1. Brief one-minute individual talks on Topic 1, *Student interests*.

2. General class discussion on Topic 2, *Aims for the course*, with the teacher acting as temporary leader in assisting and encouraging students to comment, analyze, challenge, react, and reach decisions.

3. Informal discussion of Topic 3, *Ideas for class activities*, under the leadership of several students, each taking a turn at conducting the exchange of opinions and bringing out ideas. On the basis of the contributions made on the first two topics, the class was asked to nominate pupils who, they felt, had potential leadership ability that should be tried out before the general class officers were elected.

4. Group discussions held before the class on Topic 4, *Rules and regulations*. These groups were formed temporarily in one class by volunteers, in another by seating arrangement in rows, in another by alphabetical selection, and in still another by lottery. In each case, the class was asked to decide on a suitable method. When this was done, a group of about five students at a time sat as a committee in front of the class, discussed their views, called for opinions, and made comments. Each group presided for about ten minutes. Thus, each student had the experience of being a committee member.

A CLASS CONSTITUTION

After each topic was discussed in these various ways, the class was ready to decide what to do with the information collected and how to tally the answers to the four questions. It had been decided to supplement the original course of study by writing a class constitution. The necessity of forming committees to carry out the details on each question was obvious; there was no need for the teacher to sell the idea. Action was called for, and the students were stimulated by their proposed tasks. Hence, the next few days in class were used as follows:

CLASS MEETINGS 1–5

The first week was spent in discussions as explained above.

CLASS MEETING 6

Voting on class officers.

Forming four committees on the topics discussed.

Holding first committee meetings in each of the four corners of the classroom.

Committee organization and plans for work.

CLASS MEETING 7

Committee tabulations of class suggestions on the four topics.

Committee reports to the class.

CLASS MEETING 8

Preparations by each committee for the writing of a section of the class constitution based on the results of each poll question.

CLASS MEETING 9

Discussion of permanent work for each committee upon completion of the constitution sections. Selection of a class "job" to be undertaken by each committee.

CLASS MEETING 10

Reports of each committee before the class on the permanent work to be accomplished during the first marking period.

CLASS MEETING 11

Reading and submission of sections of the constitution by committees, and reactions and recommendations of the class to each committee report.

Plans for the consolidation of the sections into one constitution and for typewriting it.

Thus, within the first two weeks of the course, the following activities were accomplished:

1. A review of the course of study for the term.
2. Discussions of class interests, aims, ideas, and rules and regulations.
3. Committee tabulations of class suggestions for the term's work.
4. Class-constitution sections written by the committees.
5. Oral reports on the constitution sections by each committee.
6. Typing of sections into one constitution for display on the bulletin board and plans for the duplication of copies for each student.
7. The selection of permanent duties by each committee for the rest of the marking period.

LONG-TERM COMMITTEE WORK

It was agreed that each committee would choose one of the following cycle assignments (each cycle to cover a period of six weeks) to carry out as permanent committee work: bulletin-board management, homework assignments and correction, speech rating and criticism, and planning of work. In turn, each group set up its own criteria for work, and a special section of the constitution on "The Duties of Permanent Committees" was written up jointly by the committees.

In order to check the progress of committees and to insure the proper utilization of time, the following practices were found useful:

1. Listing on the board each day, with the help of the committee officers, the work to be done within a certain portion of the class period allotted to committee meetings.
2. An occasional review of common-sense rules for the success of committee work, such as:
   a) The committee chairman should direct a meeting.
   b) Only one person should speak at a time.
   c) Voices must be kept low, since four meetings are in progress around the room at the same time.
   d) Order must be maintained when called for by the class chairman.
   e) Meetings must adjourn promptly and quietly when the class chairman so orders.
   f) Since desks are fixed and students move to committee places, going to and from meetings must be carried out quietly and without unnecessary delay or confusion.
3. The keeping of a record-book by the secretary of each group on the daily business accomplished, assignments given, plans made, and the attendance of members. These books were filed daily and inspected at intervals by the teacher and the class officers. Suggestions were made for corrections and improvements. At times, books were exchanged and examined by secretaries or reviewed by a particular committee.

4. The daily reports of committee chairmen to the class on plans, progress, problems, and suggestions.
5. Weekly or bi-weekly committee reports to the class and discussions on work completed and in progress.

It is apparent from these comments that once a class understands the objectives of committee work and the need for such organization, their duties and privileges as individuals and group members increase. It is not unusual in these classes for many daily activities to be initiated and directed by various committees. The work is never static since it is undertaken within the students' own frame of reference.

EVALUATION OF THE COMMITTEE PROCESS

Committee responsibility in classwork was followed through to the evaluation step, which is required at the end of each six weeks in the term. To assist in rating individuals and committees as a whole, the planning committee in one class worked out a rating scale called "Self-evaluation of Committee Work." Every pupil is asked to answer twenty-five questions concerned with his own committee contributions and the accomplishments of his particular committee as a whole.

Evidence of the students' understanding of what is involved in committee procedures is revealed in the questions included on the form for "Self-evaluation of Committee Work":

1. List the committees you have been working on during this cycle.

2. What are the activities of your committee(s)?
3. Are you an officer of your committee?
4. If so, what office do you hold?
5. What are your duties as an officer?
6. Are you an active member of the committee? Explain.
7. Have you participated in every activity of the committee(s)? List those activities in which you participated.
8. How many times have you spoken in front of the class for committee presentations? List.
9. Have you been to all committee meetings? How many?
10. Have you been absent from any committee meetings? How many?
11. Have you contributed to your committee to the best of your ability?
12. In what ways have you contributed your best?
13. How many reports have you helped to write?
14. Have you co-operated in doing all of the assigned homework of your committee?
15. When your committee meets, do you pay attention to what's being discussed? Always——. Sometimes——. Never——.
16. Do you express ideas or opinions which will help the committee in doing their work? Always——. Sometimes——. Never——.
17. Do you do your share of the work in order not to let the burden rest on one or two members of the committee? Enumerate.
18. Is the work evenly distributed on your committee?
19. Are there members on your committee who are not contributing anything?
20. What do you like most about committee work?
21. What do you dislike most about committee work?
22. How can you improve your committee membership and participation?
23. Make suggestions on how your committee(s) may be improved.

24. What mark do you feel you have earned as a committee member?
25. In your judgment, what mark does your committee deserve for the work accomplished during this cycle?

Each committee chairman tallied the answers of his members on each question and read the results to the class. A general discussion followed these reports, and suggestions were made on how committee work might be improved for the next marking period. Thus, a constant check-up and revision process accompanied the committee procedures, so that progress would be assured and learning would result.

COMMENTS

A few brief comments may be made about the values and potentialities of group work as a democratic means of vitalizing the activities of a class. Committee work is always interesting and, at times, exciting for teacher and pupils alike. A major cause for the enthusiasm which results from properly guided committee work is found in the emphasis on student activity in the planning, conducting, and evaluating stages of class work. Here the releasing of tensions and the airing of views make for sensible and compatible reactions toward activities.

There is no denying that the use of committee procedures takes a pioneering spirit and great stamina on the part of the teacher. With each class, different types of students, various situations, and unpredictable problems add to the challenge. Above all, patience, faith, and sincerity must be evidenced by the teacher as he works from day to day for individual and group progress. The step from traditional methods to the use of group procedures seems extremely formidable to some teachers, but it is just a matter of overcoming old concepts and seeing teaching in a little different light. This implies also on the part of pupils a new viewpoint toward learning, which may be developed through the democratic committee process.

The teacher is vital to pupil growth, even when aided through group activity. Growth will not occur all at once but progressively over days, weeks, and months. The teacher must develop, in place of perfection of teaching, a forward-looking aspect in order to seek teaching ends that are humanly possible of accomplishment in terms of capacities, goals, and interests of the groups involved; for success in group practices, no matter how small, is a vital step in democratic action.

ADULT EDUCATION IN A UNIVERSITY
HIGH SCHOOL

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INCEPTION OF THE PROGRAM

As EARLY as the summer of 1945, veterans of World War II began to return to school in increasing numbers. By the fall of that year, there was such an influx that it became necessary to inaugurate a special program to enable them to complete their high-school education, which had been interrupted in some cases for as much as four or more years. Being older than students of average high-school age, they were not content to be in the same classes with the younger students or to maintain the slower tempo of the regular high school. Because they wanted to complete their education in the shortest possible time consistent with thorough preparation, the regular high-school program seemed inappropriate to them.

Temple University High School formulated an accelerated program that would meet the special needs of veterans as well as high-school graduates and other adults. The chief concern of the administration of Temple University High School was to design a program that would permit mature students to accelerate their work and, at the same time, maintain the stand-ards of high school. It had to meet the requirements of the Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, and, because about 85 per cent of the students planned to go to college, the program had also to meet the rigid requirements for college entrance and to supply a broad training so that the graduates of the program would be able to compete with other students on equal terms.

The program, as finally formulated, provides a schedule of four ninety-minute periods a day. The Department of Public Instruction requires 120 hours of instruction per unit. The accelerated program provides 150 hours of instruction or 30 hours above the minimum, thus assuring students adequate training. While the program was designed primarily for veterans, high-school graduates and other adults may take advantage of it. Since the beginning of the program, many nonveterans have enrolled and continue to follow the courses. By April, 1946, more than 300 students had been enrolled. A year later the enrolment had climbed to nearly 1,200 students.

Were the students securing the nec-

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essary background to meet the keen competition in college? This was a question of major importance in the opinion of the administration. How was the administration to measure the adequacy of the instruction? Four factors seemed essential: (1) a well-balanced curriculum, (2) a strong faculty, (3) a student body with aptitude to do the work, and (4) a testing program. These are discussed below.

THE CURRICULUM

Numerous problems of life confront every person whether he attends school or not. These include the following factors: a workable philosophy of life; getting along harmoniously with others; choosing a vocation, be it an occupation or a profession; finding a wife or a husband; making life-adjustments in the family and in the community; maintaining physical and mental health; and helping to improve the community.

The primary aim of our curriculum is to help the student solve these problems. It is centered on the needs of the student. These needs are determined both subjectively and objectively. Many more problems present themselves, but the practical, everyday problems are given first consideration.

The curriculum also aims to provide a broad and cultural background on which the student may build an intelligent interest in social, civic, personal, family, and vocational problems. We need specialists, of course, but a specialist will be more useful in his own field if his philosophy of life gives him a greater understanding and appreciation of the relation of his special field to the needs of society as a whole. This type of curriculum will help the student form a philosophy of life. Each of his courses should contribute something and aid him in attaining his goal as set forth in his philosophy. In order to enable the student to cope intelligently with the forces detrimental to the common weal, the curriculum provides a broad background in moral, political, and social philosophy. The curriculum also aims to develop those human qualities so necessary in our democracy: initiative, independence, and intellectual resourcefulness. It aims to be helpful to the student who is uncertain about what occupation or profession he should follow. It provides him an opportunity to explore various fields of knowledge—an opportunity that will aid him to discover his own aptitudes and interests.

The curriculum is dynamic. We reevaluate constantly the content and aims of individual courses in light of new problems facing our ever changing society. This presupposes constant change in methods and procedures as new materials are available.

The accelerated program provides four curriculums: academic, scientific, general, and commercial. No vocational or shop courses of any kind are taught. All the courses in the four curriculums are accepted for college entrance except possibly shorthand and typewriting.

For graduation each curriculum re-

quires sixteen Carnegie units. The minimum requirements for each curriculum are as follows: four units in English; three in history and social science; one in a laboratory science. In addition, the commercial curriculum requires one unit in mathematics; the general curriculum, two; the academic curriculum, two and a half. The scientific curriculum requires four additional units in mathematics and two in science. Both the academic and the scientific curriculums require two units in a modern language. Sufficient electives are offered to make a total of sixteen units for each curriculum.

FACULTY

The forty members of the full-time faculty are mature men and women who, in most cases, possess wide training and experience. All have the Bachelor's degree. In addition, fifteen have the Master's and five the Doctor's degree. They were selected because of their personalities and their special aptitudes for teaching adult students.

Two members of the faculty were formerly college professors; two, vice-principals; one, a high-school principal; and two, supervising principals. One had been a college dean and another a college registrar. Four had been army lieutenants and one a navy captain. A number of them had had varied experience in business and industry.

THE STUDENTS

The students are of average intelligence. Entrance tests are required of every applicant to ascertain whether he has the potentiality to do the work of the accelerated program successfully. More than seventeen thousand tests have been given. Applicants who fall below a certain score are not admitted to the accelerated program. Each applicant, however, is given a fair chance to prove his ability to succeed in a nonaccelerated program. The entrance tests do not measure what the student has learned but rather his capacity to learn. In some cases, a battery of tests, both verbal and nonverbal, is given; and at times mechanical tests, such as spatial-relations tests, are used.

As the program was designed primarily for veterans, high-school graduates, and other adults, students are older than regular high-school students, the median age from semester to semester being approximately twenty-three years. About 45 per cent of the students are high-school graduates. Most of these enrol to make up college-entrance deficiencies or to raise the marks they previously earned in high school. Other high-school graduates take refresher courses to prepare for the various college-entrance examinations or for admission to professional schools.

It is a common, although erroneous, opinion that adult students do not learn as readily as do younger persons. It was long assumed that the old dog could not learn new tricks or that, if he could be taught new tricks, it would be only at an uneconomical ex-

penditure of time and effort.[1] This assumption has been shown false by the experience of everyday life, by our records, and by the records of other schools for adults. Dr. Edward L. Thorndike found that, in general, adults of from twenty-five to forty-five years of age should be expected to learn at nearly the same rate as they would have learned the same thing at fifteen to twenty.[2] Childhood, it has been found, is not the best age for learning. The best age for learning is in the twenties, and any age below forty-five is better than the ages between ten and fourteen. A man of sixty-five can learn half as much per hour as he could at twenty-five but more than he could between eight and ten.[3] The peak of ability to learn seems to be about twenty-five for most persons. Fortunately, nature has not reserved the ability to learn as a prerogative of youth. Our adult students do superior work.

Marks made by students in the early years of their high-school course are frequently no criterion of what they will accomplish as adults in high school, in college, or in their lifework. There are many students who develop their latent talents and abilities after they attain maturity. These have been called "late bloomers." They possess talents and characteristics not meas-

urable by a test or a battery of tests. Unfortunately, our educational system is not so organized that everyone can wait until he is twenty-five years old before he completes his high-school course and decides what his lifework will be.

A former student, whom we shall call George Brown, is a typical example of a "late bloomer." He was the bane of his teachers in high school. He was not a bad boy but so full of energy that he was in almost perpetual motion. His academic accomplishments were poor. Mr. Brown graduated at the bottom of his class. He then applied for admission to a junior college but was told by the dean that, because of his low marks, he could not be admitted. After considerable discussion, his request to take one subject on probation was granted.

He passed the course and then, to the surprise of the dean and himself, was accepted as a transfer student at a large university—a leading engineering school. Mr. Brown graduated from the university, earned his Master's degree, is now a member of the faculty, and has completed the major portion of the work for the doctorate. Many students with characteristics like Mr. Brown's would succeed in college if given an opportunity. Because our present tests do not measure such characteristics as ambition, drive, and the like, students like George Brown are frequently denied admission to college.

THE TESTING PROGRAM

The success of any enterprise is measured by its product. The admin-

[1] Herbert Sorenson, *Psychology in Education*, p. 277. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., Inc., 1940.

[2] Edward L. Thorndike and Others, *Adult Learning*, pp. 177–78. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928.

[3] Joseph Tiffin and Others, *The Psychology of Normal People*, p. 38. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946.

istration, as well as the teaching staff, believed that the adult students in the Temple University High School accelerated program were doing superior work. In order to determine the truth or falsity of this belief, however, a reliable measuring stick was necessary, for psychological experiments have proved that teacher-made tests do not possess a high degree of validity, which is the most important criterion of any test.[4]

Because the tests were to measure academic subject matter, educational achievement tests were essential. They had to be objective and available in many subjects. They had to possess a high degree of validity and have reliable norms. After careful consideration, the Cooperative Achievement Tests were selected from a large number of good tests.

The testing program was inaugurated in September, 1947. Since that time, tests have been given at the end of each semester of ten weeks in all major academic subjects. In all, nearly fifteen thousand tests have been administered in approximately five hundred classes.

Were the students securing the necessary background to compete successfully in college? The high scores made by our students indicate that they were. With some slight variations, from semester to semester 65–91 per cent of the classes so far have scored above the standard norm. Space will not permit giving the whole list of subjects and scores attained in the thousands of tests administered. A few of

[4] Herbert Sorenson, *op. cit.*, p. 443.

the scores, selected at random, are presented in Table 1. These scores average 51 per cent above the standard mean. These results are gratifying to the administration and faculty alike because they indicate a well co-

TABLE 1

MEAN SCORES ON ACHIEVEMENT TESTS MADE BY STUDENTS IN ACCELERATED HIGH-SCHOOL COURSE COMPARED WITH STANDARD MEANS OF TESTS

Subject Tested	Mean Score	Standard Mean of Test
Elementary algebra........	77	52.9
Intermediate algebra.......	95	57.3
Biology...................	85	50.9
Physics...................	75	57.0
Chemistry.................	80	57.1
History...................	80	52.0

ordinated program, effective instruction, and splendid co-operation on the part of the carefully selected student body.

The excellent showing made by the students is due, we believe, to the following four factors:

1. *Maturity of the students.*—Veterans and other adult students are older, on the average, than the average high-school student. Their experience has increased their scholastic efficiency, many of them making better marks than their aptitude scores would indicate as probable. Learning depends to a large degree upon the maturation of the learner.[5] Both maturation and learning contribute to the development of the learner.

Maturation takes place gradually

[5] *a*) Herbert Sorenson, *op. cit.*, pp. 273–76.
   b) Joseph Tiffin and Others, *op. cit.*, pp. 354–56.

regardless of environment; it is part of the psychological development of the learner. Learning, however, is a change in behavior which requires special conditions of stimulation. Environment and extensive travel, with opportunity to meet many people in many lands, which some of the veterans have had, have provided a varied stimulation. This has resulted in rapid maturation and encouraged intellectual development in a wide range of skills.

2. *Seriousness of purpose.*—The veterans, as well as many other adults in the accelerated program, are behind schedule. They are, therefore, desirous of completing their training in the shortest possible time that is consistent with efficiency and thoroughness. This seriousness of purpose is an optimum stimulus which results in superior achievement.

3. *Definite vocational objective.*—A large proportion of the students have definite vocational objectives. Consequently, they are devoting their best efforts to attain their objectives. A student of fourteen years of age taking algebra because it is a required course is stimulated by a motivation entirely different from that influencing an adult student of twenty-five who is preparing to enter an engineering school. Genuine motivation which arises from a conscious need for the activity in question is always present in the thinking of adult students.[6] Extraneous motivation, too frequently used

[6] A. M. Jordan, *Educational Psychology*, p. 4. New York: Henry Holt & Co., Inc., 1942.

with the teen-age student, rarely is required for the adult student described here.

4. *Character.*—"Character," as used here, includes intangible characteristics such as talents, ambition, drive, individuality, and personality, which are difficult to define. Character explains, in part, the achievement of students far beyond that predicted by their aptitude-test scores.

SUMMARIZING COMMENT

Temple University High School is glad to make this contribution to secondary education. The public school system is not organized to conduct this type of educational program. No public school, except in a few large cities, would have enough students to justify supporting a school of this type. During the past six years, students have come from practically every state and fifteen foreign countries.

In 1947, the entire program was studied over a period of twelve months by a special committee, consisting of a college dean, a professor of education, a psychologist, and a city high-school principal. The program received the unqualified indorsement of the committee.

Numerous colleges, hospital training schools, and the like have recommended the school to students who wish to remove deficiencies, take refresher courses, or secure additional background. The Temple University High School administration believes that the program is serving a needed educational function.

RECORDING OF SOCIOMETRIC DATA
MADE CONCISE AND CONTINUOUS

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CLASSROOM TEACHING during the past twenty years has strengthened my conviction that pupils learn best when they feel secure within a harmonious social atmosphere. As we all know, the key person for providing and maintaining classroom harmony is the teacher. When aware of the power and variety of forces and pressures operating among the pupils, the teacher can readily provide opportunities for each pupil to attain security within his group. One way in which the teacher can become aware of the group forces that are operating is to collect and record sociometric data.

The usual device for recording sociometric data is the sociogram, but sociogram-making is tedious and time-consuming. A simpler method for recording sociometric data is needed, not to replace the sociogram, but to supply a means by which the data can be quickly assembled. Furthermore, an arrangement for the continuous recording of sociometric data is desirable to show the changes that take place in children's choices and rejections of their fellow-pupils.

After six years of designing and discarding various methods, the writer devised a simple system for keeping a cumulative record of sociometric data. By this method, a cumulative record with space for recording data once a month for ten months for forty pupils can be kept on a chart twenty inches square. The chart can be kept in a convenient spot for ready reference by the teacher. Because it is coded, no harm would be done if it should be left on the teacher's desk.

Data were secured by having an eighth-grade home-room group answer several questions, which they developed in co-operation with the teacher. First, however, good rapport between these students and the teacher was established. It was necessary to provide opportunities for the pupils to get acquainted with one another because all the boys had chosen seats on one side of the room. Part of each daily reading class was used to discuss profitable ways of working together. Finally, in the third week of school, the class reached a decision to work in friendship groups for a period of four weeks. The desks were to be moved into groups of five or six to facilitate group discussions. The class delegated the seating arrangement to the teach-

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er, who was to be guided by the individual choices of the pupils expressed as answers to the following questions:

1. Which student from this room is your best friend?
2. Which student is your second best friend?
3. Which student is your third best friend? Extras may be named.
4. Which students would you rather not have in your group?
5. What are your reasons for not wanting to sit with them?

The data were promptly recorded and used in determining a new seating arrangement. Each student was placed in a group with at least one of his friendship choices. In no instances were pupils grouped with classmates who rejected them. Thereafter, at the conclusion of every four-week period, the same questions were used, the collected data recorded, and a new seating arrangement was set up.

A preliminary recording of the data was made. This preliminary recording proved useful until the code for the cumulative record was learned, for on one page were recorded, by name, the choices and rejections made by each member of the class. This eliminated the constant handling of individual papers and made it simple to check for accuracy. On the preliminary record, names of class members were listed alphabetically. Before each name a line was placed for each time a classmate chose that person as a best friend, and an X was placed there for each time that pupil was rejected. A code letter was placed in front of each name. Thereafter, every reference to a

class member used his code letter rather than his name. Table 1 shows

TABLE 1

PRELIMINARY RECORDING OF SOCIOMETRIC DATA

TIMES PUPIL WAS CHOSEN (/) OR REJECTED (X)	CLASS ROLL		CHOICES MADE BY PUPIL*	REJECTIONS MADE BY PUPIL*
	Code Letter	Name*		
	Boys			
//	a	....	g, o, p	—
xx////////	b	....	c, o, f	—
x//	c	....	o, e, a	—
xx/	d	....	F, b, c	g, K
//////	e	....	l, m, n	—
xx/	f	....	g, h, c	—
xxx/////	g	....	G, n, f, m	M, h, l
xxxxxxx//	h	....	O, f, c	g, m
	i	....	a, g, f	h, M
	j	....	d, p	—
	k	....	c, f, o	—
xxx///	l	....	e, m, d	g, c, h
xxxx//	m	....	f, g, i	e, M, P
	n	....	c, g, f	M
	o	....	c, f, h	—
	p	....	c, m, q	—
	q	....	f, g, i	l, m
	Girls			
/////	A	....	I, N, O	—
xx/	B	....	E, D, S	G
//	C	....	R, S, L	—
////	D	....	F, K, L	G, h
xxx/	E	....	B, S	M, c, G
	F	....	T, D, K	h, d, M
xxxxxx//	G	....	g, Q, S	E, L, K, P
	H	....	?, A, J	—
	I	....	H, A, M	—
	J	....	A, I, P	e, l, m
xx/	K	....	D, F, T, g	h, G, O, N
x//	L	....	R, D, T	M, G
xxxx/	M	....	S, G, Q	E, C, B
	N	....	O, A, n	M, P
	O	....	N, A, n	K, h
x/	P	....	S, M, C	G, m
/	Q	....	L, F, G	B, E
//	R	....	C, L, O	—
//////	S	....	C, E, D	—
	T	....	K, L, D	—

* On the original record, the actual names from the class roll were listed alphabetically. Actual names were also used for pupils' choices and rejections.

the preliminary recording of data for the writer's class.

Data for forty pupils may be placed on the preliminary record in less than an hour. If this record is accurately completed, the making of the cumulative record is simple. Coded data can be placed upon the Cumulative Record of Sociometric Data in one hour each time data are collected from the

entire group. Figure 1 presents an illustrative section of the cumulative record for four boys. The original chart included ten columns, one for each month in which data were collected. A similar chart was made for

small letters are assigned alphabetically to the class roll of boys, while upper-case or capital letters are assigned in like manner to the girls. As it is expedient to consider the pupils alphabetically on the cumulative record, the
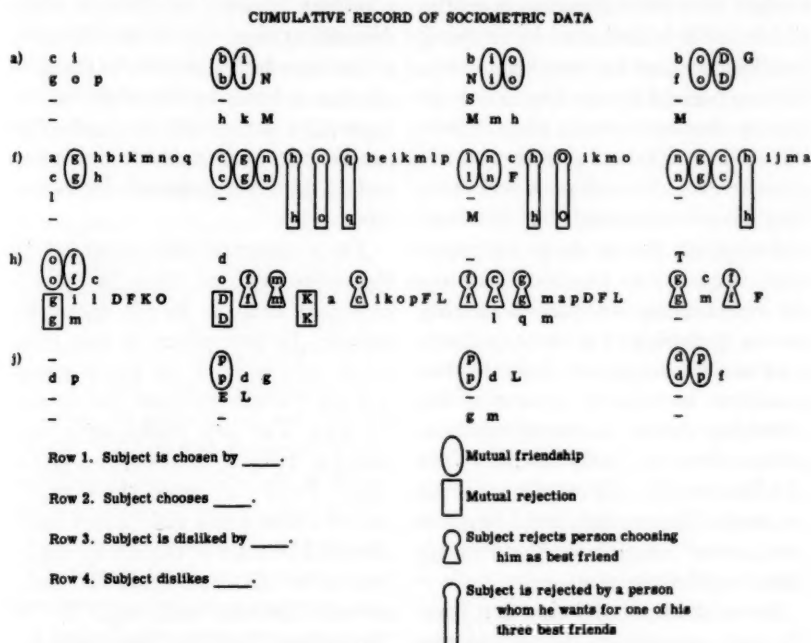
CUMULATIVE RECORD OF SOCIOMETRIC DATA

Row 1. Subject is chosen by _____ .   Mutual friendship

Row 2. Subject chooses _____ .   Mutual rejection

Row 3. Subject is disliked by _____ .   Subject rejects person choosing him as best friend

Row 4. Subject dislikes _____ .   Subject is rejected by a person whom he wants for one of his three best friends

FIG. 1.—Sample entries on cumulative record of sociometric data collected at four different dates on four boys.

the girls. The explanations and code meanings are not shown on the original record. Thus, it may be used openly, if desired, without danger that confidential information will be disclosed to pupils.

Successful use of the cumulative record depends primarily upon the care with which the code letters are assigned and charted. Lower-case or

choices for Pupil "a" were first entered. A block of four rows of letters is needed to show the required sociometric data. The first row of the block identifies by letter all the pupils choosing the person being studied; the second row indicates the persons the subject chooses; the third row identifies all the pupils rejecting the subject; while the final row identifies the class-

mates whom the subject rejects. A dash (—) is placed in every row where no choices or rejections were made.

Four symbols are used to call attention to pertinent data. In all cases, rounded lines mean friendship, while straight lines mean rejection. A mutual friendship is indicated by drawing an ellipse around the matched letters. Mutual friendships can appear only in the top two rows of any block. When the subject rejects a person who aspires for his friendship, a long rectangle is placed around the letter representing the person doing the rejection, capped by an arc around the letter representing the person aspiring for the friendship. The same device is used in a varied form to indicate that a subject is rejected by one of his friendship choices. A mutual rejection always shows up in the last two lines of a block and is indicated by a small rectangle. The symbols could be made even more conspicuous by drawing them in different colors.

Let us start to build the chart from the data recorded on the preliminary record (Table 1). In the margin at the top of the left-hand side of the cumulative-record chart, place the letter "a" to represent the first pupil. The top inch all across the chart will be reserved for the recording of data pertaining to "a." Note that, in September, Pupil "a" was chosen by two classmates, "c" and "i," while he chose to be with "g," "o," and "p." Pupil "a" rejected no classmate, nor did any of his classmates reject him.

Consequently, the third and fourth lines are marked with dashes.

Continue the process, using a block of four lines for each pupil being considered. Thus, at the end of the recording for September, you will have used a column an inch or more in width descending along the left-hand margin of the cumulative record. In October, another column to the right of the September strip will be used. This process may be repeated so that sociometric data are recorded for ten or more dates.

The sociometric data recorded for the entire year for Pupil "a" clearly indicated changes in his friendship pattern. In September, he was interested only in boys for group mates. Yet the students he chose did not prefer him. The boy might have been called a "fringer" at that time. In October, Pupil "a" chose three pupils, one of whom was a girl—a fact easily detected because of the use of capital letters. At that time Pupil "a" had a mutual friendship with Pupil "b." By November, Pupil "a" had made further changes in his choices and had mutual friendships with Pupils "i" and "o."

The first strip of the complete record showed that Pupil "a" maintained three mutual friendships in March and again in April, while in June he maintained mutual friendships with two of the five persons choosing him at that time. Suppose sociometric data had been recorded only in September, January, and May.

The person studying the record for this boy might have called "a" poorly adjusted, since, in the experience of the writer, rejection does often indicate maladjustment. Pupil "a" was chosen by Pupils "c" and "i" in September, by "i" in January, and by Pupils "f" and "G" in May. Pupil "a" could have been called a definite "fringer" if data had been recorded only for these three months. Recordings for ten different dates may alter conclusions reached through the study of fewer sets of sociometric data.

A quick glance at the first row of letters in each block will reveal the "stars" and the "isolates." If five or more letters have been placed in the first row in any block, that person is a star. Look, for example, at the record for Pupil "f," who was chosen seven or more times at every collection of data. Isolates are quickly spotted because of the absence of letters in the first row of their blocks and the appearance of a blank instead. Rejected students are easily identified by the presence of let-ters in the third row of their blocks. Note Pupil "h," who in October was rejected by as many as twelve classmates.

The device described here offers a concise method for the cumulative recording of sociometric data. It makes effective use of simple symbols to call attention to both mutual and partial attractions and rejections. As the record is easy to make and easy to interpret, it may inspire more frequent collection of sociometric data. Changes in friendship patterns can be easily followed. Comparisons and trends can be conveniently noted.

Use of this device saves time both in recording and in interpreting sociometric data. More data can be recorded on this cumulative record than can be effectively placed on a sociogram, and it indicates what happens to individual pupils. It will not replace the sociogram, but it can well be a major adjunct to the sociogram because of its effectiveness in picturing the individual through time and in spotting the main clusters and isolates.

EDUCATIONAL STATUS IN RELATION TO
CULTURAL AND MATERIAL SYMBOLS

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CERTAIN VALUES have been as-
cribed to educational experience
other than the material benefits of oc-
cupation, wealth, and level of living.
Educational experience has been spo-
ken of as a highly significant factor in
the development of the well-rounded
personality and in the development of
the active, creative, critical personali-
ty which is basic to the proper func-
tioning of our democratic society.

Although it may be reasonably as-
sumed that all levels of schooling con-
tribute to development of the person-
ality, the function of "higher educa-
tion" has often been stressed in this re-
spect. Both professional educators
and laymen hold the opinion that
high-school and college training is de-
sirable since it helps to stimulate
and mold worth-while appreciations,
tastes, and leisure-time activities.
These qualities and activities are part
of the configuration often considered
characteristic of the "well-rounded"
personality.

Current discussion and writing in
the field of education decry the influ-
ence of "narrow specialism," as op-
posed to the value of a broadening
general education, and challenge the

proposition that higher educational
experience today is providing desirable
cultural values. The question may
therefore be asked whether college-
trained persons are differentiated in
terms of cultural qualities from those
persons not having had this experi-
ence.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The problem.—Assuming that the
technical competence acquired as a re-
sult of the educational process gives
the individual certain advantages in
securing material benefits, does it also
follow that high-school or college edu-
cation affects subsequent apprecia-
tions, tastes, and leisure-time activi-
ties? Specifically, if persons possessing
the advantages of higher education are
compared with persons not having had
this experience, will the former be
found to differ with respect to certain
symbols of economic success and cul-
tural values which might be viewed as
evidence of the benefits of higher edu-
cational experience?

In order to investigate this ques-
tion, the writers studied certain factors
which were believed to be indicative of
economic success and cultural values.

In the case of the symbols of material accumulation, these selected indices were economic class,[1] home ownership, rental value of the home, possession of a telephone, and possession of an automobile. The selected indices of cultural benefits were ownership and reading of books; use of a library card; the reading of newspapers and magazines; the possession of phonograph records; and participation in such activities as hobbies, community projects, listening to the radio, church activities, and club activities. It is recognized that these indices are neither ideal nor exhaustive in nature, but they represent certain attributes which are readily investigated and are commonly recognized as economic and cultural symbols. An additional consideration in the selection of the cultural indices was the attempt to select those which tend to be more or less accessible to all persons regardless of income or socioeconomic status. The effect of economic barriers which might limit participation in certain types of activities cannot, of course, be entirely eliminated, but the aim here was to minimize their influence as much as possible.

Source of data.—The information used in this study was gathered by means of a state-wide survey dealing with problems of adult education[2] conducted by the Washington Public Opinion Laboratory of the State College of Washington. The individuals

interviewed in this poll were selected by means of a stratified area sample. This type of sample is regarded as representing all sections of the population of the state of Washington over twenty-one years of age. Thus, the groups analyzed in this study may be considered as representing the various educational levels of the adult population of the state. These groups were classified as follows: college, 4 years or more; college, 1–3 years; 4 years of high school; 1–3 years of high school; 7–8 years of elementary school; and 0–6 years of elementary school.

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Comparison of educational groups by indices of material accumulation.—Table 1 presents a summary of the comparison of the six educational groups according to the indices reflecting material accumulation. It may be observed that, for three out of five indices (possession of telephone, ownership of home, and rental value of home), college graduates differ significantly[3] from high-school graduates. When the high-school graduates are compared with the group having had one to three years of college training, only one significant difference is found

[1] This index is based on interviewers' ratings of economic class following the method described in *Interviewing for NORC*, pp. 62–69. Denver: University of Denver, 1947.

[2] Poll 3, "Adult Education," May 25, 1948. The sample consisted of 470 adults residing in the state of Washington. A copy of both the questionnaire and the sample design may be obtained from the Director, Washington Public Opinion Laboratory, State College Office, Pullman, Washington.

[3] In this paper the term "significant difference" refers to the acceptance of the 5 per cent level of confidence resulting from the critical ratio test of the differences between per cents.

(rental value of home). Tentatively it can be concluded on the basis of these findings that the experience of four years of formal education beyond the high-school level is associated with certain differences in material posses-

tional groups possess symbols of material accumulation to a greater extent than do the lower, for here it is observed that rental value varies directly with level of educational attainment.

Further attention should be called

TABLE 1

PER CENT OF EACH EDUCATIONAL GROUP IN A SAMPLE OF ADULTS IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON POSSESSING CERTAIN INDICES OF MATERIAL ACCUMULATION

MATERIAL INDEX	EDUCATIONAL GROUP					
	College 4 Years or More	College 1-3 Years	High School 4 Years	High School 1-3 Years	Elementary School 7-8 Years	Elementary School 0-6 Years
Number of subjects......	47	60	155	116	94	38
Economic class:						
Upper.................	6.4	6.7	0.7	0.0	2.2	2.6
Upper-middle.........	25.5	20.0	15.5	14.6	10.6	15.8
Middle...............	66.0	65.0	74.8	69.0	63.8	42.1*
Lower................	2.1	8.3	9.0	16.4*	23.4*	39.5*
Possession of telephone....	95.7	80.0	76.1*	67.2*	59.6*	65.8*
Possession of automobile...	87.2	81.7	80.6	75.0	64.9*	65.8*
Ownership of residence....	61.7	68.3	73.5*	69.8	76.6*	81.6*
Rental value of place of residence:						
$50 and over...........	72.3	46.7*	30.3*†	25.9*	23.4*	31.6*
$0-$49................	27.7	53.3*	69.7*	74.1*	76.6*	68.4*

* Asterisks indicate those groups which, when compared with the college-graduate group on given indices, were found to have statistically significant differences in per cents.

† A dagger indicates that a statistically significant difference in per cents resulted from the comparison of the group having 1-3 years of college and the high-school group for the given index.

sions. Only in the case of home ownership is a reverse pattern observed. That is, the lower the educational status, the more likely is the individual to own his place of residence. This may perhaps be explained by the fact that, nationally, the upper educational strata tend to be more mobile than are the lower.[4] The data on rental value of the home, however, support the contention that the upper educa-

⁴ U.S. Bureau of the Census, "Population Characteristics," *Current Population Reports,* Series P-20, No. 36 (December 9, 1951), 1.

to the general patterns of relationship indicating that the per cent of persons possessing a given characteristic varies directly with the educational level. The presence of general patterns rather than abrupt distinctions between the contiguous groups seems to indicate that education bears an important relationship to the distribution of material symbols. This is not to say that education is herein regarded as a single determining factor in contributing to the possession of material advantages. Although education in

many cases is a prerequisite to higher-level occupations and incomes, it still must be regarded as a variable that is acted on by other elements in our culture—particularly socioeconomic factors, which to a large extent determine who shall be educated.

school graduates on the same two indices.

The fact that high-school and college graduates are more similar than different with regard to the possession of these cultural qualities leads to the speculation that higher education is no

TABLE 2

PER CENT OF EACH EDUCATIONAL GROUP IN A SAMPLE OF ADULTS IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON POSSESSING OR EXHIBITING CERTAIN CULTURAL QUALITIES

CULTURAL QUALITY	EDUCATIONAL GROUP					
	College 4 Years or More	College 1–3 Years	High School 4 Years	High School 1–3 Years	Elementary School 7–8 Years	Elementary School 0–6 Years
Number of subjects.......	47	60	155	116	94	48
Read newspapers, magazines, books............	95.7	95.0	93.5	96.6	93.6	86.8
Take papers..............	100.0	91.7	94.8	90.5	88.3	84.2*
Read books in last month..	57.4	60.0	40.0*†	33.6*	13.8*	23.7*
Use or own library card...	85.1	66.7	55.5*†	63.8	38.3*	26.3*
Own books..............	100.0	93.3	93.5	78.4*	71.3*	65.8*
Own phonograph records...	44.7	36.7	36.8	31.0	25.5*	26.3*
Work at hobbies..........	55.3	60.0	58.7	39.7	48.9	28.9*
Attend plays, lectures, concerts.................	36.2	41.7	37.4	28.4	28.7	15.8*
Work on community projects..................	38.3	36.7	39.4	29.3	28.7	15.8*
Listen to radio...........	85.1	93.3	91.0	91.4	89.4	84.2
Church or church activities	51.1	55.0	55.5	50.0	47.9	31.6
Go to clubs.............	34.0	38.3	45.8	44.0	33.0	18.4

* Asterisks indicate those groups which, when compared with the college-graduate group on given indices, were found to have statistically significant differences in per cents.

† A dagger indicates that a statistically significant difference in per cents resulted from the comparison of the group having 1–3 years of college and the high-school group for the given index.

Comparison of cultural indices.— Table 2 presents a summary of the six educational groups according to the selected cultural indices. It is found that, in only two indices out of twelve investigated ("Read books in the last month" and "Use or own library card"), do the college graduates differ significantly from the high-school graduates. The group having from one to three years of college training also differs significantly from the high-

more effective in the development of certain cultural values in its students than is high-school training.

The analysis of the cultural qualities for all the educational levels reveals that, of the twelve indices examined, only four present patterns indicating a positive association with the level of education. In the case of these patterns, moreover, the distinctions between adjacent educational groups are not so marked or uniform

as in the case of the material symbols. Thus, in view of the few significant differences between college and high-school graduates and the rather infrequent occurrence of uniform patterns, it may be said that educational experience does not serve to differentiate individuals on the basis of cultural qualities as clearly as it does on the basis of material symbols.

An additional comment should be made with regard to the qualitative aspects of the cultural indices. Information was obtained with reference to the *kind* of papers, books, and phonograph records possessed or used by the respondents, as well as the amount of *time* spent in the other activites. For the most part, significant differences in the kind and the amount of participation were found *only* between the extreme educational groups and are, therefore, not included in this paper.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

When college-trained persons and high-school graduates are compared with respect to the degree to which they exhibit certain material symbols and cultural values, significant differences are found in three out of five material indices but in only two out of twelve cultural indices.

When all educational levels are compared on these same indices, it is found that in the case of all five material indices, and in four out of twelve cultural indices, there is a positive pattern of association between level of educational attainment and the possession of given attributes.

In conclusion, it would seem that only in the case of symbols of material accumulation is higher education associated with significant differences between those persons who have had this experience and those who have had training up to, but not including, college education. With respect to the cultural values, a smaller number of such patterns is noted, and the results for educational groups extending from high-school graduates to college graduates are similar for all but three out of twelve indices.

Assuming that these indices of the "well-rounded" personality are valid, the findings of this study generally support the conclusions reached by studies of the curriculum content of present-day American higher education. Such studies have shown that college curriculums have placed emphasis on enabling the individual to secure material symbols rather than on training him in cultural objectives. The present study, which analyzes some of the results of educational experience rather than the curriculum, suggests that the products of higher education are more readily identified by material symbols than by evidence of a broad cultural basis for social living. The paucity of distinctions between the various levels of education when compared on the cultural indices as contrasted with the material indices may indicate that "narrow specialism" does prevail in the population sampled and, consequently, that attempts should be made to broaden the base and outlook of general education.

FORMAL GUIDANCE PROGRAMS
DESERVE STUDY

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GUIDANCE WORKERS may place too great an emphasis on the formal aspects of the programs at the expense of the functions of the several guidance services. A survey of twenty secondary schools in southeastern New Hampshire showed that in certain aspects those schools with formally organized guidance programs did only slightly better in providing the usual guidance services than did those schools without formally organized guidance programs.[1]

PURPOSE AND PROCEDURE

About half of the schools studied maintained formal programs with a full-time or part-time director and specifically designated personnel to assist in the various guidance functions. Since many of the schools without formal programs were also making provision for the usual guidance services—providing information for understanding students, counseling, informational services, placement, and

[1] Roland F. Gray and Edward C. Buffington, "A Survey of Guidance Services in Southeastern New Hampshire." Unpublished seminar study, University of New Hampshire, 1951.

follow-up activities—this study was designed to compare the work of the schools with and without formally organized programs.

The data were secured by a questionnaire-interview instrument. Each school was visited by the investigators, who sought answers to thirteen fundamental questions regarding organization, personnel, and functioning of guidance programs. Eighty items constituted the complete questionnaire-interview instrument.

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

A provision for keeping cumulative records and the procedures used in obtaining data for them were accepted as criteria for judging the importance attached to the cumulative record as a source of information to help understand students better. Understandably, considerable variation was discovered in the extent and the quality of information recorded.

All schools reporting had some kind of cumulative-record system, but the information recorded, in most cases, covered the usual school marks, general intelligence scores, and health

data. A small number of schools kept records of the student's work experience, family history, special talents, and interests. About 30 per cent more schools with formal programs recorded data for these latter items than did schools without formally organized programs. However, in contrast with schools with formal programs, the schools without formal programs made 30 per cent more frequent use of group intelligence testing, family interviews, and physical examinations to provide information for the cumulative records. In only a limited way did either group make use of case studies, individual intelligence testing, and anecdotal records.

The findings of this section of the study, then, seem to support the conclusion that the schools with formal programs have better cumulative-record folders but that the schools without formal programs do a better job of providing information for realistically understanding the students.

All the schools with formally organized guidance programs maintained some kind of counseling service, while this service functioned in only half of the schools without such programs. This would seem to be a point in favor of formal organization except that the evidence suggests that counselors many times were forced to act without adequate information about the students. Such conditions tended to make the service not only more difficult to administer but possibly less effective.

There was no marked difference between the performances of the two groups of schools in the providing of educational, occupational, and recreational information for the pupils. Of those three areas, both groups did their best jobs in providing educational information.

The schools with formal programs did a slightly better job of placement than did the schools without formal programs. However, the emphasis was on educational placement at the expense of occupational placement. Little or nothing was done by either group of schools to place school leavers in occupations or to help them obtain further training.

Follow-up services were poorly developed in all schools. The formally organized group did make some use of appraisal forms mailed to graduates and made some attempt to check on educational success or failure. However, virtually nothing was done by either group to check on occupational success or failure.

CONCLUSION

Although the findings of the present study may not be wholly representative of guidance programs across the country and may not reflect some very effective programs, they point up the fact that, whether established formally or informally, guidance services need to be studied to determine whether they are achieving their goals. It further appears from this study that some schools may have been too eager to set up forms and select guidance directors instead of first developing among the staff and student body an understanding of the need for, and of the proper functioning of, the services.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM[1]

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THE FOLLOWING REFERENCES are selected from the materials on the extra-curriculum that have been published between November 30, 1950, and December 31, 1951. In general, the literature on the extra-curriculum published during that time reflects a healthy consideration of methods of achieving success in the democratically operated activities of the school. This is especially noticeable in the area of student government, where there is evidence of concern for the training of both teachers and students. Also there is an apparent trend in the direction of summer and fall workshops for this purpose at both state and local levels.

Principles of organization and administration of school-activity programs received a great deal of consideration. Several articles, for example, described in much detail successful student-body budgeting and accounting plans. Continued attention was given to the recreational and athletic programs of the school. Only one article, however, was concerned directly with the school-ac-

tivity program as a medium for community relations, and little consideration was given to the school assembly, except for the excellent proposals for assembly programs which are presented monthly in *School Activities*.

Except for frequent references to the values of student activities in leadership training and of athletics in the development of sportsmanship, little attention was paid to the potentialities of extra-class activities in other areas of personal development, although two writers dealt philosophically with improving "human relations" and "self-realization" through the student-activity program.

If our world of today, with its turmoil of political, moral, social, and economic conflicts, has had any impact on the extra-curriculum activities of the school, there is little or no evidence of it in the literature. Even those articles dealing with finances seemed more concerned, on the whole, with details of accounting than with the effects of inflation. No studies of the influence of war and increased mobilization, either on pupil participation or attitudes, were found. Perhaps this is suggestive of needed research.

[1] See also Item 606 (Hand) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1951, number of the *School Review*.

488. ADAMS, HENRY J. "Student Council Designed for Action," *Clearing House*, XXV (May, 1951), 521–25.

Discusses possible causes for student council "stagnation" and describes the organizational plan which appeared to be successful in one school.

489. AGEE, J. W. "Student Councils Teach Good Citizenship," *School Activities*, XXII (January, 1951), 147–50.

Presents a concentrated outline of discussions held at the National Association of Student Councils in Denver in June, 1950. Deals with eight basic problems related to the student council.

490. ALLINGHAM, BRUCE. "Noon Activities: Effective Schedule of Lunch, Recreation," *Clearing House*, XXV (January, 1951), 295–97.

Describes a plan of scheduling noon-hour activities which seemed to be very successful in two different schools.

491. ASHBY, LLOYD W. "The Issue of Added Compensation for Extra Responsibility or Extra Work," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), 167–72.

Analyzes the issue of compensation for extra work and extra responsibility and outlines practical steps to be taken in resolving difficulties.

492. BAXTER, BERTRICE N. "Promising Administrative Practices in Junior High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (April, 1951), 117–19.

Stresses the need for a dynamic, representative student organization that has status as a truly governing body with its responsibilities clearly defined.

493. CARMAN, CHARLES C. "Publicity for the Activities Program," *School Activities*, XXII (May, 1951), 282–85, 309.

Suggests that an integral part of the organization of activity programs is its publicity and describes eighteen suitable avenues for such publicity.

494. DAYMAN, EVELYN L. "Student Body Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (December, 1951), 35–44.

Emphasizes student-teacher co-operation in junior high school government, suggesting organizational procedures, evaluative criteria, and hazards.

495. DIXON, FRED B. "Education 'in Absentia,'" *School Activities*, XXIII (October, 1951), 61–62.

Suggests that many worth-while group activities demand an excessive amount of pupils' time and that this is detrimental to their education. Quotes letters from national organizations indicating that they favor a concerted effort to control pupils' activities.

496. DODSON, TAYLOR. "Attaining and Maintaining Good Sportsmanship," *School Activities*, XXIII (November, 1951), 83–85.

Asserts that sportsmanship in athletic activities has declined to a point where specific education of spectators, players, and coaches is needed. Offers seventeen explicit suggestions for developing more sportsmanlike behavior in athletics.

497. DRAKE, GEORGE K. "We Teach Them To Lead," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (December, 1951), 477–83.

Describes a four-week citizenship-education project, sponsored by a junior high school student council and carried out through the home-room program, which resulted in "improved conduct throughout the school for the whole year."

498. EHNES, CHRISTIAN WALTER. "Central Treasury for All Activities," *Clearing House*, XXVI (September, 1951), 30–34.

Advises a central treasury for all student organizations in the school and describes in detail the organization and procedures of the central-treasury system employed in the Brookline (Massachusetts) High School.

499. FLATT, JOHN D. "Do High School Activities Take Too Much Time?" *School Activities*, XXII (February, 1951), 189–90.

On the basis of one hundred returns to a questionnaire filled out by school officials in Idaho high schools, the author concludes that school activities do not require an excessive amount of the students' time and that the time used is well invested. Suggests twelve "guide points" for carrying on an activities program.

500. GEHRIG, EARL A. "Budget Procedure for Extracurricular Organizations," *Business Education World*, XXXII (September, 1951), 17–20.

Argues in favor of permitting student organizations to conduct their own financial affairs, provided the budget procedures are sufficiently organized to permit adequate administrative control as well as valuable learning experiences. Describes in detail one budget plan, including the text of manuals on "Financial Procedures for Student Organizations" and "Record-keeping Procedures for Treasurers of All Student Organizations." Shows samples of forms used.

501. GILBERT, GEORGE H. "The National Honor Society in Senior High Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), 241–44.

Presents arguments for and against the National Honor Society and answers major criticisms of t' organization.

502. HARROD, MARGIE. "Arkansas Workshop Rescues Straying Student Councils," *Clearing House*, XXV (March, 1951), 422–23.

Describes a state-wide fall workshop for teachers and students who are interested in the student council.

503. HEARN, ARTHUR C. "Increasing Interest and Participation in Activities," *School Activities*, XXII (March, 1951), 212–13, 239.

Makes four specific suggestions for students and faculty in their efforts to overcome student apathy toward student activities.

504. HELLMANN, WALTER H. "Leadership Development Program," *Clearing House*, XXV (December, 1950), 219–20.

Describes a plan for leadership training for the students in one high school who had leadership responsibilities "of one sort or another."

505. HINCHEY, C. E. "The Issue of Added Compensation for Extra Responsibility or Extra Work," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), 173–78.

Reports three studies dealing with the problem of extra pay for extra work and concludes that the solution lies in the "professional job concept."

506. HUTCHINSON, JOHN T. "A Realistic Approach to Education for Recreation," *High School Journal*, XXXIV (February, 1951), 37–42.

Analyzes four fundamental issues in developing a program of education for recreation in the high school. Practical "initial steps" in program-planning are included.

507. KELLER, RUTH MAYNARD. "Group Sponsors," *School Activities*, XXIII (November, 1951), 89.

Briefly describes common methods for selecting sponsors of school activities and lists six characteristics of successful sponsors.

508. KUTZ, FREDERICK B. "Improving Human Relations through a Pupil-Activity Program," *School Activities*, XXII (March, 1951), 217–18, 239.

Presents some of the objectives and desired outcomes in the area of human relations and gives thirteen reasons for considering pupil-activity programs in attempting to reach these objectives. Describes three steps in developing such programs.

509. LUCAS, FRANK L.; VARDON, HELEN L.; and PERRY, J. WALLACE. "The Groundwork for Student Government," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (May, 1951), 268–75.

Describes how students are being prepared in one school to meet the responsibilities of self-government. Includes an experiment with a student court which has not been in operation long enough to permit an evaluation.

510. MCCLEARY, LLOYD E. "Controlling the Student Club Program," *Clearing House*, XXV (March, 1951), 398–400.

Explains the city-wide club program of the public school system in Portland, Oregon, which includes activities taking place "beyond school property" and "outside of school hours."

511. MCDOWELL, NANCY E. *Your Club Handbook*. Life Adjustment Booklet. Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1951. Pp. 50.

Makes practical suggestions to youth concerning selection of clubs, their organization, use of parliamentary procedure and discussion, program-planning, and adult participation.

512. MATHES, GEORGE E. "What Are the Functions of the Student Council in the Secondary School?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), 221–26.

Discusses the functions of the student council in the areas of citizenship, student government, administration, curriculum, and community relations.

513. MOORE, JOSEPH D. "How Can the School Administrator Deal with Fraternities and Sororities?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (March, 1951), 324–32.

Describes co-operative action taken by school and community to eliminate fraternities and sororities from Lansdowne, Pennsylvania, by 1953.

514. PHILLIPS, E. L. "Financing the Activities Program in a Junior High School," *High School Journal*, XXXIV (May, 1951), 133–38.

A principal of a medium-sized junior high school explains the difficulties involved in financing school activities and suggests the use of tax funds for this purpose. Includes a helpful bibliography.

515. RABB, WALTER. "High School Physical Recreation Must Be Adapted to the Needs and Interests of Students," *High School Journal*, XXXIV (February, 1951), 50–56.

Outlines the needs and interests of high-school students in regard to physical recreation and makes seven suggestions for adapting the high-school program to these needs and interests.

516. REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Organized Extra-Curricular Activities in the High School," *High School Journal*, XXXIV (May, 1951), 130–33.

Describes general principles for organizing, managing, and evaluating extra-class activities. Suggests that the values of extra-class activities may be lost through inadequate organization and that such activities, when unsponsored, may actually be more harmful than helpful.

517. SHANNON, J. R. "School Activities and Community Relations," *Clearing House*, XXV (March, 1951), 427–29.

Maintains that school activities and community recreational activities can work together and that, when they do, the school-community relations are solidly established. Describes a situation which illustrates this principle.

518. SHANNON, J. R. "School Activities and the Social Recluse," *School Activities*, XXII (March, 1951), 211–12.

Maintains that "so long as the ... so-called curriculum and extra-curricular

activities of a school are differentiated from one another, the latter will provide infinitely greater possibilities for self-realization than the former."

519. SHIPP, FREDERIC. "Extraclass Activities in the California Secondary Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXVI (October, 1951), 346–48.

Surveys opinions of five hundred California secondary-school administrators, who were asked to indicate the most significant extra-class activities in their respective schools.

520. "Standards in Athletics for Boys in Secondary Schools," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXV (November, 1951), 74–82.

This report by the Joint Committee on Standards for Boys in Secondary Schools recommends specific policies to make athletics an integral part of the curriculum, thus insuring the achievement of worthwhile educational objectives, proper administration and supervision of athletics for the benefit of all youth, and protection of participants from the hazards of injury or exploitation.

521. STERNER, WILLIAM S. "Preparation of Sponsors of Pupil Activities," *School Activities*, XXII (May, 1951), 275–76.

On the basis of a survey made of more than three hundred beginning teachers, two hundred high-school principals, and twenty college and university officials, a program is proposed for the preparation of sponsors of school activities.

522. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH. "What's Holding Back the Student Council Idea?" *School Activities*, XXIII (September, 1951), 3–5.

Student councils, though widely accepted in theory, all too often fail. Here are eight suggestions for increasing the effectiveness of the student council and, consequently, its success.

523. TOMPKINS, ELLSWORTH, and STORY, ROBERT C. *The Activity Period in Public High Schools*. United States Office of Education Bulletin 1951, No. 19. Pp. 18.

Discusses relative merits of using an activity period, a core program, or time outside of the regular session for extra-class activities, and reports on percentage of public high schools using an activity period.

524. VAN POOL, GERALD M. "Teacher Responsibility to the Student Council," *Clearing House*, XXV (December, 1950), 195–98.

Suggests eight direct responsibilities of every teacher toward the student council.

525. WOOD, DONALD I. "Why a Student Council Workshop," *School Activities*, XXIII (November, 1951), 85–87.

Suggests that both student and faculty leaders of student councils are frequently handicapped because of lack of understanding of the purposes and methods of student participation in school administration. Proposes a leadership training program which includes a summer workshop. Describes briefly how one such workshop was planned and developed.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

LESTER D. CROW and ALICE CROW, *High School Education*. New York: Odyssey Press, 1951. Pp. x+534. $3.75.

Here is a book which surveys the field of secondary education. In it we find a review of the development of the high school and of the trends with regard to its place, function, and organization. Included are sections on the financing of secondary education and the status of the professional personnel. The major attention in the book, however, is given to the curriculum, to resources for its implementation, and to guidance.

The volume covers areas similar to those found in other recent textbooks on secondary education; its particular strengths seem to the reviewer to lie in its sections on the organization of high-school education, on the characteristics of high-school pupils, and on guidance. The discussion of ways in which the community can be used to implement the curriculum is also helpful. A brief section on educational organizations provides a limited orientation to this important means whereby the teacher can join with others professionally.

In the Preface the authors state that they "emphasize the functions of the high school as related to adolescents: (1) their characteristics and educational needs, (2) their lower-school background, (3) their post-high-school educational or vocational plans, and (4) the demands of society upon them" (p. v). In the reviewer's judgment, the emphases on characteristics and post-high-school plans are clearer than those on the lower-school background or the demands of society.

Certain understandable but perhaps un-fortunate stereotypes appear. There seems to be an inference that curriculum is somewhat fixed and can be "constructed" by persons withdrawn from the teaching-learning situation. The organization of the book separates guidance from curriculum, and consideration of characteristics of high-school pupils from guidance. The treatment of the social forces or trends is provided with few supporting data. One of the sections concerned with "Specific Learning Areas" in the curriculum gives consideration to these social forces and trends in treatments of family life, occupational competence, consumer attitudes, international understanding, and life adjustments. These topics are organized parallel to other specific learning areas in conventional high-school programs, such as English, social studies, sciences, and fine and practical arts. Another stereotype is perhaps reflected by an acceptance of line-and-staff organizational assumptions. An example is the statement: "The high-school principal should preside at all teachers' meetings" (p. 375).

It could be wished that the illustrations of topics of "interest-motivating units" might have included some more directly related to current social or pupil concerns than "The Industrial Revolution" or "The Rise of Nationalism." Similarly, the reviewer missed a sufficiently detailed treatment of organization of the secondary school to provide for core and life-adjustment programs and core-curriculum practices less confined to correlation or to the theoretical treatment of "common learnings" as described in the Educational Policies Commission's *Education for All American Youth*.

The concept of program improvement through various kinds of pre-service and in-service education is given little attention.

The authors have succeeded in generalizing the textbook sufficiently that it should be helpful in considering both small and large high schools. The use of the word *educand* recurrently throughout the book bothered the reviewer since it can hardly be said to be in current usage. Still, the style is adequate for comprehension by students seeking an introductory review of high-school education in its present status.

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Michigan State College, Board of Examiners, Paul L. Dressel, chairman. *Comprehensive Examinations in a Program of General Education.* East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State College Press. Pp. x+166. $4.00.

As far as the reviewer knows, only four American colleges base grades solely on comprehensive examinations prepared by an independent board of examiners. These are the University of Chicago, the three branches of the Chicago City Junior College, the University of Florida, and Michigan State College. The present volume is the first full-length exposition telling how the system works, how examinations are prepared in each field of study, the effects of the system on study and instruction, and student and faculty reactions to it. It may be compared only with the brief account of comprehensive examinations at the University of Chicago published in *The Idea and Practice of General Education* by members of the faculty in 1950.

The book under review will probably be read in two different ways, which have been anticipated and facilitated by the authors. It will probably be read cover to cover by administrators who want to know whether to adopt the system, or any parts of it, in their own institutions, and by those who are professionally interested in tests and measurements. But by far the larger group of readers will be college teachers who have to prepare examinations for courses resembling those offered in the Basic College at Michigan State College.

These readers will want to read for background information the two opening chapters—an account of the general education program and of the comprehensive examination system. Then they would be well advised to read chapter iii, "Examining in Effective Living," even if they have never heard of such a course as "Effective Living," because the authors wisely realized that many of the steps in preparing examinations and analyzing results are common to all examinations, and to discuss them in each of the chapters on the seven different fields of study would be needlessly repetitious. Hence they selected "Effective Living," their most unusual course offering, and assigned its examiner, Walker H. Hill, the task of fully explaining all the steps involved in preparing the examination for it, down to the final analysis of results. Later chapters then merely refer back to this chapter for procedures in course examinations. It should be added that Mr. Hill acquits himself ably, presenting an account of the construction of an examination that will open the eyes of most college teachers to problems and possibilities in examinations that are well worth their consideration.

Most college teachers will probably then skip to the chapter dealing with their own field of study. There are six of these: Biological Science, Physical Science, Social Science, History of Civilization, Literature and Fine Arts, and Written and Spoken English. A notable feature of all six is an uncommonly full and clear discussion of the objectives that each examination is designed to measure. If a college teacher gained no more from the book than a clearer and broader view of what his course might accomplish, he would be well rewarded.

But much more can be gained than a better view of objectives. For each objective the authors give a wide range of specific items to be considered in testing, with special emphasis on the non-informational outcomes that are hard to measure and usually neglected. Probably few workers, even in the field of tests and measurements, but will find many ingenious ideas that are new to them, and most college teachers will find these chapters a veritable gold mine of types of items that they will want to adopt.

An engaging feature of all the chapters is their candor. The authors freely discuss many problems of examining in their fields for which they have found no satisfactory solution, and they present many illustrative items that failed to work, together with a shrewd analysis of what was wrong with them. The latter are almost as helpful as the list of successful items in that they show what faults the novice may easily commit in writing test items.

No standard work on tests and measurements with which the reviewer is acquainted is likely to be as helpful to the college teacher, uninitiated in professional test construction, as these chapters. They speak his language; they show a vivid awareness of what he is trying to accomplish; and they present a host of ingenious devices to find out whether he has been successful. Statistical treatment is kept firmly in the background. Only two statistical concepts are used throughout the book—an index of discrimination, which shows how well an item distinguished between good and poor students, and an index of difficulty, which shows the per cent of students who answered an item incorrectly. These two concepts certainly need not frighten the least mathematical of college teachers.

The two final chapters are concerned with problems and procedures in administering comprehensive examinations and with reactions to the program. The latter is an outstanding example of the candor that was mentioned earlier. The writers pull no punches, evade no issues, and, so far as the eye can detect, make no false claims. While the general verdict is favorable, it is made quite clear that certain features of the program are in need of improvement. Student and faculty criticism centered on the fact that grades assigned by instructors have no weight in determining the course grade, which is based on the examination alone. While much evidence is presented pro and con, the authors admit that this is still an unresolved issue. It is left, in the final sentence, in the form of a challenge that few college faculties could meet: "Term grades may very legitimately be included in the final grade when it is clear that they offer a reliable measure of student proficiency with respect to educational objectives not measured by the comprehensive examinations."

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Adventures in Aviation Education: A Research Report for the Use of Teachers and School Administrators. Prepared under the Guidance of the American Council on Education for and in Cooperation with the Civil Aeronautics Administration, H. E. MEHRENS, director and editor. Washington: American Council on Education in Cooperation with Civil Aeronautics Administration, 1951. Pp. xiv+402. $3.50.

As a rank outsider in the educational field but with official interest and concern in aviation, this reviewer found *Adventures in Aviation Education* to be a guidebook that he recommends highly for teachers and administrators in all elementary and secondary grades. Especially is it encouraging and exhilarating as a fresh, constructive approach to the somewhat stereotyped technical methodologies sometimes used in working toward the goals of secondary education.

Past efforts to introduce aviation education into the curriculums of secondary schools have been localized, undirected, and only as effective as the individual teacher's interest, ingenuity, or familiarity in that area. But the importance of aviation education is now fully recognized at top education levels, as the book under review demonstrates by its report on a nation-wide sampling project.

As properly defined, aviation education includes orienting and familiarizing the school child with the impact of air transportation on the social order. In this sense, an approach is made to a truly general aviation education through *Adventures in Aviation Education*. The approach is not through the teaching of specialized, separate courses but rather through pre-service and in-service orientation of the teacher to the air age. The teacher then is able to integrate aviation education with regular curricular courses in all the grades and in the various subject areas.

The project described in this book was conducted under the auspices of the aviation education divisions of the American Council on Education and the Civil Aeronautics Administration. Selected teachers from thirty-two of the nation's largest school systems were brought to Washington, D.C., for general indoctrination and familiarization with source materials. After that, the participating teachers were left to exercise their own imagination and originality in integrating aviation education into the curriculum for the age groups in their own classrooms. Throughout the book, mention is made of the interest, co-operation, and contribution of the airlines, the military establishments, industrial concerns, and state and federal governmental agencies in the field of aviation.

Compiled as a research report under the direction of H. E. Mehrens, supervisor of the Aviation Education Program of the Civil Aeronautics Administration, *Adventures in Aviation Education* follows the casebook method. Not only is this method appropriate for a research report, but it also adds authenticity to the book. Reports of successes, problems, and deficiencies that come directly from typical teachers in typical educational environments are more convincing than would be an exposition by a committee on what they believe and want others to believe. The illustrative cases are arranged according to grades and subjects, so that the interested teacher can readily pick out those aspects of the project that are particularly significant to him.

The book is not only an evaluation of a significant project; it will also serve as an inspiration for those with a beginning interest in the subject, as well as a valuable reference book for educators on the national level who are interested in furthering aviation education. It emphasizes methods and elements necessary for success in an aviation education program, mentions pitfalls to be avoided, and carries references to materials and aviation literature.

If the purpose of the book were the aggrandizement of aviation, educators would, very properly, avoid the whole thing. But while furtherance of aviation is inevitably a by-product, that is not the goal of the project reported nor of the aviation-education movement that may be expected to arise from this study. The conclusion of the participating teachers, stated again and again, is that, in whatever grade aviation education was instituted, it was not only highly successful in achieving its own purposes, but also enriched the courses, stimulated student interest in the courses, and helped establish real and warm rapport between student and teacher. The reports emphasize the influence of an air-age orientation in broadening students' horizons and the teamwork required for classroom demonstrations and discussions. Such factors as these were effective in placing democratic group interests above individual interests and in helping individuals recognize

responsibilities to the group by accepting roles of leader or follower.

If it does nothing more, *Adventures in Aviation Education* clearly shows that no teacher should feel hesitant about instituting aviation education in his classroom because of lack of familiarity with the subject matter. Instead, one gains the conviction that, if the teacher is willing to adopt the empirical approach, his own talents, imagination, and initiative, together with the boundless imaginations and enthusiasms of the students, will make the program a success. As the reports show, under constructive and imaginative stimulus and encouragement, interest spreads throughout the class and from class to class, like a chain reaction. The problem then becomes one of confining interest to a manageable scope, rather than generating it.

The book helps point up the need for work at top educational levels in collecting, compiling, and furnishing source materials; outlining programs; and suggesting techniques and practical demonstrations for each grade and area in the curriculum.

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The Schools and National Security: Recommendations for Elementary and Secondary Schools. Edited by CHARLES W. SANFORD, HAROLD C. HAND, and WILLARD B. SPALDING. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. xiv+292. $3.00.

Can a book be produced by the collaboration of 2,000 selected persons and be honestly representative of the thinking of the group? Few books have ever so well presented the combined judgments of competent leaders on a timely area of policy and practice as this one in the McGraw-Hill Series in Education sponsored by the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction in Illinois. The importance of the edited volume can hardly be overestimated and can only be appreciated by knowing how it came about.

The first step involved calling together, in January, 1951, twelve top-level experts of various backgrounds in training and experience, most of them not professional educators. Their informal discussion concerned the nature, dimensions, and requirements of the national security situation and of the likely consequences of the measures which probably must be taken. They did *not* talk about education. The authors summarized, in Part A of the book, the conclusions which were reviewed and approved or revised by the discussants.

The second step consisted in calling in eighteen professional educators to draw major implications for education from the statements of the first panel. After being edited, submitted to members, and revised, these implications are reported in Part B.

For the third step, the two sections, Part A and Part B, were mailed to 130 members of a third panel, predominantly educators at both the elementary- and secondary-school levels expert in various aspects of education. Three concerted days and evenings of small-group deliberations produced the conclusions as to what, in the best judgments of educators thinking about their own specialized fields, the schools ought to do about national security. Recommendations of the twenty-three subgroups were edited, referred to the members for revision, and became a printed trial copy which was mailed to 2,000 Illinois administrators, teachers, school-board members, parent-teacher association leaders, and several groups of high-school pupils for discussion with small groups to obtain objections, agreements, and suggested changes. The subgroups of the third panel again reviewed the results of the trial run, discussed, revised, and finally approved the particular statements for which they were responsible. These second revisions were considered, modified, and accepted or rejected by the

Steering Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Curriculum Committee and became Part C of the final material in the book.

The result of all this work, *Schools and National Security*, is a rich resource for the school and community that tries consciously to plan for performing its finest possible role in the total defense program of the nation. The volume is written in direct, straightforward language, is positive in its recommendations, and practical in its suggestions for action. Buried in page 118 is the statement which indicates the basic approach to the problems: "Therefore, what is good school procedure in normal times becomes particularly significant in times of stress and tension." This could indicate a philosophy of "business as usual with no change necessary." However, the specific recommendations for each of the twenty-three areas of study propose advances far beyond the usual practices.

If one wishes to criticize, it can be said that each of the groups assumed responsibility for the whole of the educational program and proposed so many time-consuming developments that the school could carry out only a few of them in the time available. This is a familiar situation for the administrator and curriculum co-ordinator, who must continue to orchestrate the parts of the total school situation. Part C, therefore, becomes a brief encyclopedia of current thinking about modern practices in all the major aspects and subject fields of the school program. Every curriculum committee operating in a given field can use the brief statement covering its own field and in short chapters learn about the other school activities, which impinge upon the same students.

But what about specific developments in the defense efforts? The panels, meeting in the early part of 1951, anticipated possible conditions, which, fortunately, did not materialize. But the uneasy and unhappy world situation may still bring about those hypothetical conditions just over the time horizon. Probably no publication in the next few years will give the school personnel anything approaching the value of this guide to fundamental thinking which may serve as the basis for improving the role of the schools in the national security effort.

The "Summary" of twelve pages is an over-all appraisal of the role of the schools in the national security program. It should be of interest to superintendents and administrators who are responsible for seeing the current situation as a related whole and in a perspective that can give rational balance to each of the parts.

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ROLAND C. FAUNCE and NELSON L. BOSSING, *Developing the Core Curriculum.* New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1951. Pp. viii+312.

An influential book on the secondary-school curriculum by Harold Alberty of Ohio State University, published in 1947, considered the core approach as a promising means of improving the high-school offering. Nelson L. Bossing of the University of Minnesota, in his writing and consultative work, has stimulated further trial of the plan. *Developing the Core Curriculum* by Roland Faunce of Wayne University and by Dr. Bossing is devoted exclusively to problems of developing the core program. The avowed purpose of their book is "to bring together and present in extended form some of the results of the rich experience of many who have successfully experimented with the Core Curriculum" (pp. v–vi).

The first five chapters present the definition and underlying educational basis of the core curriculum in our democratic society. Reduced to its simplest terms, the core is generally regarded as that aspect of the total school program which is basic for all students and which consists of learning activities that

are organized without reference to conventional subject lines. Professors Faunce and Bossing indicate that the distinctive aspects of the core curriculum are: (1) provision for "common learnings," freedom from subject-matter patterns; (2) emphasis upon group problem-solving, and upon teacher-pupil planning, in contrast to predetermination of group goals and procedures by teachers or textbook writers; (3) provision of a daily block of time longer than the conventional forty-five to sixty-minute high-school period; and (4) emphasis on improved guidance and counseling at the classroom level.

The implementation of the core program within the community, the school, and the classroom is considered in chapters vi–xiii. The authors offer many practical suggestions and a wealth of illustrations of practices in fifty communities throughout the country, including experimental core procedures in Michigan, Illinois, and Minnesota. Also listed are requirements for effective implementation of a core curriculum.

Particular emphasis is given to the role of the teacher, administrator, and community in developing an effective core program. The teacher need not, in rejecting authoritarian roles, move in the direction of becoming a passive observer while the class lapses into anarchy. He may choose, instead, the difficult but exciting roles of participant, friend, and counselor; expediter of plans; and technician in the process of democratic planning,

execution, and evaluation. On the other hand, in the role of follower, the administrator has an excellent opportunity to demonstrate to his colleagues his readiness to accept leadership from teachers who are elected or appointed to leader positions. The authors emphasize the special significance of this attitude because of the importance of teacher leadership in curriculum development programs. Furthermore, the administrator, as well as laymen, may be helpful in collecting resource material for specific units. Research shows that the development and use of resource units is one promising way of giving teachers the necessary feeling of security to enable them to break away from the recitation method with its great reliance upon a single textbook.

In showing the development and evaluation of a school program which looks out of the window on life, the authors have clarified our thinking about the core curriculum and its implications. Unsolved problems still remain, such as meeting college-entrance requirements and standards set by the accrediting agencies and the state departments of education. After these incorporeal, largely hallucinatory enemies have been dissipated, layman attitudes will be encountered: What is to become of real learning? What becomes of subject matter? These are basic questions which are as yet unanswered.

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